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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF GRADE V STUDENTS' USE OF PRAGMATIC INFORMATION IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF MEANING FROM IMAGINATIVE LITERARY TEXT

by

© MYRNA L. McGREGOR

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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Date September 28, 1979

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the performance of grade five students in using their knowledge of how language is employed for specific purposes in particular contexts, in order to infer author's intention and to recognize incongruent language use in imaginative literature.

Forty students from five Edmonton Separate Elementary Schools were divided on the basis of their vocabulary and comprehension scores on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills, into groups of excellent and good readers with twenty students in each group. Students were interviewed individually by the investigator.

Each student read three previously unseen selections chosen from two texts recommended for fifth grade by Alberta Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide. After reading each selection, students were asked a combination of open-ended and probe questions concerning the author's intention, the recognition of incongruity, and the elimination of incongruent language use. The four specific types of language incongruity probed involved inappropriate conditions for questioning, irrelevant conversational contribution, impolite conversational exchange, and inappropriate register.

Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed by the investigator, who also devised "a posteriori" categories from the responses to each question. These categories were then used in chi-square analyses to determine if there were relationships between specific types of responses and membership in the group of excellent or good readers, and also in qualititative analyses to examine the ways in which the students used their pragmatic knowledge when constructing meaning from imaginative

literary text.

The chi-square analyses revealed no statistically significant relationships between specific types of responses and group membership. It was found that some, but not all, of the students made inferences related to the intention of the author, and that the number and kind of inferences were related to the form and content of the selection, and to the experience of the reader, both individual experience and the general experiences of being a child. Generalizing on the basis of insufficient data was the most common cause of inadequate response.

When identifying incongruity used to achieve an effect of humor or strangeness, students proved sensitive to the techniques of the author, recognizing the predominant incongruity used in the selections. The readers were able to use the pragmatics of a literary context with which they were familiar, in this case the Peanuts comic, as a framework within which meaning was created. Students seemed to be using a wholistic, integrated knowledge of the total context, rather than specific cues, to identify elements that did not "fit". The type of incongruity recognized varied within groups, but both good and excellent readers identified instances of incongruent situational language use in the texts, some types of language incongruity being easier than others to identify and correct. Irrelevant conversational contributions were both easily recognized and corrected, whereas inappropriate conditions for questioning were most difficult for the students to comprehend. Errors in register and in politeness were moderately difficult for students to detect and correct. There was evidence that some students in both groups failed to transfer pragmatic knowledge that they used in face-to-face encounters

to the reading situation, indicating that some instruction is necessary to the development of maximum use of pragmatic knowledge in reading comprehension.

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CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW

The information that the reader brings to the printed page has long been accepted as a major factor in reading comprehension. The definition of comprehension as the relating of new experience to the already known (Smith, 1975, p. 10) affirms the central role of prior information in all construction of meaning. Smith uses the metaphor "a theory of the world in the head" (Smith, 1975, p. 11) to label the store of knowledge that an individual brings to every task, including reading, of which he must make sense. This "theory of the world" has many aspects.

Recent studies have shown that knowledge of specific facts (Marshall and Glock, 1978), knowledge of task expectation (Frederiksen, 1975), and knowledge of the probable goals and plans of characters (Schank & Abelson, 1977) all affect the meaning that the reader constructs from written text. This prior information, of whatever kind, along with "new" information in the text, is used by the reader to make inferences and thus to construct meaning unavailable without the existence of the prior knowledge.

One aspect of the information that the reader brings to the page which has received little attention is the reader's knowledge of how language is used in specific situations. Every language user acquired his language within situational contexts where it was used for a purpose; thus he learned the functions that language serves as well as the appropriate use of language in a range of contexts. Whether or

not all children make use of this knowledge when processing text in which the reader must create a speech context using his knowledge of the rules of language use has not been extensively studied. The cues that must be used in reading text are more abstract and subtle than those used in oral language, and very indirect forms must be interpreted, sometimes in terms of more than one intention.

Emphasis in recent curriculums on the integration of the language arts and on the functions of language in the spoken mode has created an increased need for evidence to indicate if and how children make use of this kind of language information when they read. This study attempted to provide additional empirical evidence of children's use of their knowledge of the rules of situational language as they construct meaning from the written text.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the performance of grade five readers in using their knowledge of how language is used for specific purposes, in particular situations in order to infer the author's intention and to recognize incongruent language use that occurs in imaginative literature. In order to keep the task as close as possible to a regular classroom reading task, three complete selections were chosen from texts recommended by the Alberta Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide for use at the grade five level. A group of excellent readers and a group of good readers were asked individually to read each selection silently and, following the reading, to respond orally to a structured interview which used probe questions to elicit responses to specific language-use situations.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The concept of bringing meaning to the printed page rather than taking meaning from the page is not new. The part played by cognitive schemas in the assimilation of new information has long been recognized in both psychology and education. Nor is the view that the general language ability of the reader greatly influences his reading performance particularly startling. Somewhat less well-accepted, however, is the role that pragmatics, or that part of linguistics concerned with how language is used in the real world, plays in reading comprehension. Such indecision about the place of pragmatic knowledge in the general background knowledge brought to the reading task is understandable because the field has not yet been well-defined by linguists, and those who study language acquisition have only recently begun to examine how pragmatic knowledge is acquired and employed by young children. Nevertheless, it is now obvious that native speakers do learn implicit rules for different types of language events.

Demands on this type of knowledge have been almost completely ignored in reading instruction. Although basal reader material at all levels, and especially at the beginning levels, involves many conversational exchanges, little is known about the differences, if any, between understanding a situation in which one participates and understanding a situation that one observes or about which one reads (Smith, 1979).

In an attempt to add a little more empirical information to that which exists on children's use of pragmatic information in reading comprehension, this exploratory study examined only three areas of

the very broad field labeled pragmatics: author's intention, conversational conventions, and the appropriateness conditions for the speech art of questioning. Probe questions, rather than free recalls, were used because previous research, reviewed by Beach (1979, p. 11), has indicated that young readers often have more knowledge of internal states, motives and feelings of characters than is first revealed in free recall. In addition, the latter two types of pragmatic knowledge were assessed only on the basis of recognition and correction of a violation of the conversational rules or of the appropriateness conditions for questioning. From regular grade five readers, three selections containing instances of violation of conversational conventions or appropriateness conditions for questioning were chosen as stimuli. Although all three were examples of imaginative literature, they differed in form to allow for possible influences of type of text. In an exploratory study of this nature, the investigator considered that assessing awareness of incongruency in regular reading material and examining the ability to remove this incongruency would provide evidence concerning the reader's explicit use of his implicit pragmatic knowledge. No direct attempt was made to assess the kinds of inferences made from the incongruencies, except in the case of author's intention, which required consideration of many cues.

Grade five readers should have reached the concrete operational stage of cognitive development which appears to be necessary for noting logical incongruities (McGhee, 1971a). The cognitive development of students at this level may not yet be adequate, according to some sources (see Beach, 1979) for inferring thematic intention of the author. Only excellent and good readers were chosen for the study

because the regular classroom material, which they had not previously read, presented them with few word identification or vocabulary problems.

Given the facts that the use of pragmatic knowledge in reading comprehension is being recognized by those who study reading comprehension as an important part of background information, and that the topic is ignored in teacher source books accompanying basal readers, it seemed useful at this time to examine what actual children really do when reading regular classroom materials.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this study the following terms are used as defined.

reading comprehension — a complex of processes involved in bringing meaning to the printed page (McLeod, 1978, p. 5).

inference — cognitively generated information, previously unstated, that is based on explicit linguistic and non-linguistic information in the context of continuous written discourse (McLeod, 1978, p. 6) in interaction with knowledge which the reader brings to the reading task.

situationally incongruent language — language that is inappropriate in a particular context, but not necessarily in some other inferred context. Such inappropriateness may not arise primarily from semantic or syntactic considerations.

pragmatics	rules and conventions governing the use of language by real language users in specific situations (Bates, 1975, p. 277).
language context	set of variables surrounding any language event, including the time and space in which the event occurs, the relationship of the participants, the kind of event, and the events that preceded it.
excellent reader	subject who scored above the fiftieth percentile in vocabulary and at or above the eighty-fifth percentile in reading comprehension on the Edmonton Separate School District norms for the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills written in Spring, 1978.
good reader	subject who scored at or above the fiftieth percentile in vocabulary and between the fiftieth and the seventy-sixth percentile in reading comprehension on the Edmonton Separate School District norms for the Canadian Test of Basic Skills written in Spring, 1978.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study was designed to answer the following questions, which are stated here in general terms. In Chapter III, a more detailed description of the questions is given.

1) What, if any, inferences do grade five readers make about the intentions of the author?
2) Do grade five readers recognize situationally incongruent language when it occurs in written discourse?
3) Do grade five readers recognize the basis for the language incongruency as demonstrated by their ability to change the language to eliminate the incongruity?
4) Is there any relationship between performance on the three preceding tasks and membership in the group of either excellent or good readers?

PLAN OF THE STUDY

Twenty excellent and twenty good grade five readers were chosen from five Edmonton Separate Schools in widely separated geographic locations in the city. The data were collected by the investigator during regular school hours from May 7 to May 23, 1979.

Students were met individually and read three complete selections, each selection being followed by oral responses to probe questions asked by the investigator. All possible orders of presentation of selections were used, with students randomly assigned to each of the six orders. All interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed by the investigator.

Because the kinds of responses could not be predicted, categories of response were determined "a posteriori". In addition to qualitative analyses of responses, a chi-square analysis was performed on each kind of response given for each question on each selection to examine possible relationships between group membership and type of response.

LIMITATIONS

The study had a number of limitations.

1) Because only good and excellent readers took part in the study, generalizations cannot be made to the performance of poorer readers.
2) Because all three stimulus selections were examples of imaginative literature, generalizations to performance on other types of written discourse cannot be made.
3) Because the tasks in the study involved recognition of incongruent situational language and of the basis for such incongruity, statements cannot be made about other kinds of inferences made on the basis of the recognition of this incongruity.
4) Asking the subject if he found anything strange or funny in the selection may have encouraged him to recognize incongruity which he would not have noted without the prompt.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Very little empirical evidence exists about children's use of pragmatic knowledge in constructing meaning from written text. By providing some data on young readers' recognition of situationally incongruent language and on their inferences about author's intention this study contributes to the knowledge of the reading process and to instructional methodology as it suggests the kinds of help students may need in making use of this particular kind of background knowledge.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Recent studies have confirmed that various kinds of prior knowledge have an effect on the comprehension of written text. (Frederiksen, 1975; Spiro, 1975; Marshall and Glock, 1978; Gordon, Hansen and Pearson, 1978). This prior knowledge, or "theory of the world in the head" (Smith, 1975), can take many forms, from knowledge of the syntactic system to expectations about the purpose of the reading task.

THE ROLE OF BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE IN COMPREHENSION

Using 141 undergraduates, randomly assigned to three conditions, Frederiksen tested his hypothesis that differences in task expectation would influence the comprehension of material and hence the kind of information recalled. Subjects in all three conditions were read the same 503 word essay a total of four separate times, but each group were given different instructions. Group A were told the essay was about socio-political problems involving a canal, a threatened civil war, and economic collapse on a hypothetical island. Their task was to recount the essay in writing immediately each time they heard it. Group B were told, in addition, to generate as many solutions as possible to the problems of the island. Group C were told to focus only on solution; but after the fourth trial, that is, after they had heard the essay four times, they were unexpectedly asked to write an account of it.

His results showed that conditions A and B were nearly equivalent on recall of explicitly coded semantic relations, but that the problem-solving context produced more over-generalized and inferred relations.

The relative differences between the two groups persisted over one week, even though Group A had access to the problem in the intervening time. The over-generalizations and inferences increased for Group B over exposures, indicating, according to Frederiksen, that the context in which verbal information is received does influence how it is processed through affecting the kind of information that is selected for storage.

There are several difficulties with accepting his conclusion outright as empirical evidence that pragmatic knowledge influences comprehension. First, Frederiksen defines context as task demand in this study. Task demand fits within context of utterance defined as ". . . a structure in relation to which sentences are assigned semantic values" (Thomason, 1977, P. 164), but it is only one facet of context, or of background knowledge, and may not have the same effect on processing as do other aspects of context. Secondly, one must ask if exactly the same processes are involved in listening and in reading comprehension. Wanat (1977), for instance, supports the view that when a linguistic cognitive competency becomes available in listening, it automatically becomes accessible in the learner's reading (Wanat, 1977, p. 10). Griffin (1977), however, disputes this view, arguing that the "middle range reader", who is the reader who knows a few things about reading and many facts about the world but acts as if the two were not related (Griffin, 1977, p. 123), needs explicit instruction to apply some of his linguistic knowledge to the reading task.

Spiro (1975) dealt with the effect of background information on a reading task. He predicted that information read would be constructed differently depending on the structures that the reader had available for assimilation of the information, and that, furthermore,

any modification of the assimilative structures by new information such that their current states at recall conflicted with their states at original processing would influence the recall of the reader (Spiro, 1975, p. 20). Spiro worked with 360 undergraduates under thirty-six treatment conditions. The between-subject variables were: 1) instructional set, either memory or cognitive interaction involving considering solutions to a true dilemma; 2) story, either balanced or unbalanced, i.e., the characters agreed or disagreed about the principle in the story; 3) ancillary information that was consistent or inconsistent with the story that had been read; and 4) delay prior to recall of two, three, or six weeks. At the recall sessions, students were asked not only to write what they recalled, but also to rate their degree of confidence that the statement was explicitly stated in the text. Spiro did find errors in the predicted direction. Those in the cognitive interaction condition who were given contradictory ancillary information made more reconstructive errors in their recall than did the straight memory group. The cognitive-interaction group were confident they were correct when they were wrong more often that were the memory-only group. Spiro interpreted this as an indication that the storage schema had actually been altered by the ancillary information, whereas the memory-only group, having used no such cognitive schema to understand the text, were not influenced by the conflicting data. This interpretation would also account for the fact that Frederiksen's Group A were not influenced by the presentation of the problem after all trials had been completed. The problem-solving directive did not modify any schema into which the information had been assimilated.

These two studies indicate that the task demand and the relationship between what is read and what already exists in the mind of the reader are two kinds of prior knowedge that influence the construction of meaning. Two other studies, those of Marshall and Glock (1978) and of Gordon, Hansen, and Pearson (1978), provide empirical evidence for the often assumed claim that having prior information about a specific subject facilitates gaining new information from reading about that subject.

The purpose of Marshall and Glock's study (1978) was to investigate the effect on written recall of the amount and type of information from the semantic structure of discourse that is encoded into the surface structure of an utterance. Subjects in the study, 160 freshman or sophomore students from Cornell University and Auburn Community College, read versions of discourses about bar graphs and sonnets that contained explicit or implied logical and relative relationships. The findings that relate to the place of prior information in comprehension where unanticipated results of the study. Marshall and Glock reported that the subjects from Cornell University produced more integrated recalls and were less influenced by the presence or absence of explicit cues, such as if-then, in the surface structure of the texts. The investigators attributed these differences to the ability of the Cornell students to infer what was not explicit in the text because of their greater prior knowledge of the subject. Another finding of the study reconfirmed that the effect of what exists in the memory of the reader has a stronger effect on comprehension than do differences in the text. All students in the study performed better on the selection on bar graphs than on the selections on sonnets, indicating that these subjects

were able to bring more relevant prior information to the former type of discourse.

Similar effects of prior knowledge were found for second grade students by Gordon, Hansen, and Pearson (1978). They chose two groups of ten students who differed in amount of background information on spiders, but not in reading ability or I.Q. As predicted, those students with more prior knowledge performed better on comprehension tasks after reading the selection about spiders, the effect being more pronounced for tasks requiring integration of textual and scriptal knowledge.

Scriptal knowledge is prior knowledge that a reader has built up through many encounters with a particular situation. This term, used by Pearson and Johnson (1978), is borrowed from Schank (1975) who defined a script as ". . . predetermined sequences of actions that define a situation" (p. 264). One who has a script for hockey has knowledge of predetermined sequences of actions involved in playing hockey or in watching a hockey game; therefore he makes inferences from his script when he reads about hockey. He uses the scriptal knowledge cued by the textual information to generate information which is not explicitly in the text.

Schank, working in artificial intelligence, noted that computers were able to answer only questions based on explicit textual references because they lacked prior information needed to make even the simplest inferences. To remedy this deficiency, scripts were devised to serve as memory units for the computer.

Scripts alone, however, cannot account for all the information readers bring to the task of reading imaginative literature. Schank and

Abelson (1977) have enlarged the concept of background knowledge to include plans, goals, and themes. Themes contain background information which makes possible the prediction of goals and of the plans to reach those goals. The interpersonal theme of love, for instance, could evoke the goal of being near the one loved, which in turn could call up various plans for achieving that goal. The reader, being aware of themes, goals, and plans, will read: John sat up all night in a crowded bus to reach Mary's side, and infer that this was John's plan to reach his goal determined by the theme of love.

The significance of scripts, goals, plans, themes, and other elements in the reader's "theory of the world in the head" is that they provide a basis for making and confirming inferences cued by the text. With particular reference to imaginative literature, the task of the reader is to recreate the themes, goals, plans, and scripts of both the author and the characters in order to adequately construct meaning. McLeod (1978), in his study of the inferencing behavior of grade four students, found that all of his subjects made inferences. He used forty subjects, twenty very proficient and twenty less proficient, but still good readers. Although both groups made inferences, the better readers made more use of textual information to confirm their inferences and were more likely to stay within the constraints of the text. McLeod examined the kinds of textual information used by the reader to make inferences, but his study was not designed to examine the kind of information brought to the text.

PRAGMATIC INFORMATION AS ONE KIND OF BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

Included in the prior knowledge contained in scripts, plans, goals and themes, or in any "theory of the world in the head" must be knowledge of how language is appropriately used in specific situations. This knowledge, sometimes labeled pragmatics, and defined as the rules governing the use of language by real speakers and hearers in real situations (Bates, 1975, p. 277), is part of the language experience of every native speaker of language. Halliday (1978), in an explanation of his General Sociolinguistic Theory, points out that:

> We do not experience language in isolation...but always in relation to a scenario, some background of persons and actions and events from which the things which are said derive meaning (Halliday, 1978, p. 28).

This interrelationship between the system of social relationships and the linguistic system seems obvious, although complex. Yet linguists and those involved in teaching language have been slow to investigate this aspect of language, concentrating rather on the phonological, syntactic, and the logical-semantic systems of language. Halliday (1969) himself, although he contends that the child knows what language is because he knows what language does, still does not want to speak of "knowledge" of functions of language because this introduces an unnecessary level of discourse (Halliday, 1978, p. 51). If implicit knowledge of language function is to be employed by the reader in constructing meaning from text, it may be necessary that such knowledge be brought to the explicit level.

Language function, either implicit or explicit, is a relatively recent concept. The philosopher, Austin (1962/1970), maintained that using language was an active process and that it was therefore

inadequate to speak only of the reference of words and of the truth value of sentences. In addition to these dimensions of meaning, Austin proposed locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary speech acts. A locutionary act is the performance of an act of saying something; an illocutionary act, is the performance of an act in saying something; and a perlocutionary act is the effect on the hearer of that which is said. An example from one of the selections in this study illustrates how any or all of the three kinds of acts can be performed with one sentence.

MRS. MAPLE: ...would anyone like tea? (Kites and Cartwheels, p. 203).

Locutionary Act: Mrs. Maple stated "would anyone like tea" by "anyone" referring to those present, and by "tea" referring to a drink brewed by pouring boiling water over the leaves of the tea plant.

Illocutionary Act: Mrs. Maple invited those present to have some tea. Even though the utterance is in the form of a question, it is understood that a positive response will be followed by Mrs. Maple's providing tea.

Perlocutionary Act: Mrs. Maple persuaded someone to have tea. In this selection she did not persuade anyone and was therefore unsuccessful in her perlocutionary act.

Austin gave most attention to illocutionary acts, of which he proposed five classes: verdictives, typified by convict and acquit; exercitives, typified by appoint and name; commissivies such as promise; behabitives

such as welcome and apologize; and expositives, including affirm and deny. These illocutionary classes amounted to categories of verbs, and as Sadock (1974, p. 152) points out, "the range of illocutionary force in language is not matched by a similar range of . . . performative predicates". Sadock's objection applies to the example above from Kites and Cartwheels. Although there is an illocutionary act of invitation, there are many locutionary acts with the same illocutionary force: Have some tea; Do you want tea? How would you like a cup of tea? or simply Tea?

This confusion of illocutionary acts with a finite set of verbs is one of the criticisms that Searle (1977) levels against Austin's illocutionary classes, while acknowledging that Austin himself put these classes forward not as definitive, but as stimuli for discussion. Searle also criticized the lack of homogeneity within the groups of verbs, but his most telling criticism is that there is no clear principle, or set of principles, on the basis of which the classification is constructed (Searle, 1977, p. 33). In an attempt to remedy this weakness, Searle proposed twelve dimensions along which illocutionary acts can vary. These twelve dimensions are worth repeating because they summarize much of the knowledge that the reader must bring to reading conversation in imaginative literature if he is to construct its meaning. Searle explained his twelve dimensions as follows:

1) Illocutionary point is the object of the act. Request and demand have the same point.

2) Fit with the world refers to the fact that some language fits the world, e.g., Tulips bloom in the spring, and some language is an attempt to have the world fit the language, e.g., Please

close the window.

3) The difference in psychological state refers to the sincerity condition of the speaker, that is, to the current state of the speaker's mind whether that be belief, desire, or intention to act in some way.

These are Searle's three major categories, but he goes on to list others.

4) Difference in force or strength refers to the differences between inviting and ordering.

5) The status of participants can affect the force of the utterance, e.g., "Come here" when spoken by a mother to her child has a different force than when it is spoken by a child to his mother.

6) The relation of the utterance to the interests of the speaker and hearer is meant to account for the differences between congratulating and consoling.

7) The relationship of the utterance to the rest of the discourse allows for replies that are meaningless out of context.

8) The difference in propositional content determined by the illocutionary force of the utterance refers to the difference in the status of his coming in "I believe that he'll come" and "I promise that he'll come".

9) The difference between forms that must be specific speech acts and those that are optional is shown by the fact that "I promise" is always a promise, whereas "Whose socks are those?" may or may not be an order to pick them up, depending on the relationship between speaker and hearer.

10) The difference between those acts which do and do not require extralinguistic institutions to be valid refers to the fact that "You're out!" does not achieve quite the same effect outside the context of a baseball game.

11) The difference between speech acts with corresponding verbs and those without returns to Searle's and Sadock's concern to separate verbs from speech acts. A promise can be made by saying "I promise", but a threat is not made by saying "I threaten".

12) The difference in style of performance accounts for the difference between stating and confiding. (Searle, 1977, p. 28-30).

Although Searle's list gives an account of variables that may affect the pragmatic meaning of an utterance, there is no agreement on how to represent the relationship between sentence-meaning and utterance-force (Fraser, 1977, p. 113), much less on how knowledge of these relationships functions in reading comprehension.

Fraser himself is concerned with the question of what principles relate a sentence with a particular meaning uttered by a particular person on a particular occasion to utterance meaning, and subsequently to the utterance's effect on the hearer. He thinks the answer to the question rests on the assumption that utterance-force is a function of sentence meaning (propositional content), the identities of the speaker and the hearer, and the shared world knowledge that they possess. These three factors are related by principles of conversation.

Rules of Conversation

Only a few of the attempts to draw up rules and regularities for aspects of conversation exchanges will be included here in an attempt to indicate the complex, largely implicit, nature of the knowledge necessary to understand conversational exchanges. The role of this knowledge in written conversation will be referred to later.

Grice (1975) describes conversation as cooperative efforts. Anyone who is interested in achieving communication will attempt to make the exchange profitable by following what Grice calls the Cooperative Principle: Make your conversational contribution such as is required at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged (Grice, 1975, p. 67). There are four maxims under the Cooperative Principle:

The Maxim of Quantity	The contribution should be as informative, but not more informative than is required.
The Maxim of Quality	The contribution should be true. Deliberately false statements should not be made.
The Maxim of Relation	The contribution should be relevant to the ongoing conversation.
The Maxim of Manner	The contribution should be clear; it should avoid ambiguity and obscurity; it should be brief and orderly.

Because the Maxim of Manner concerns how what is said is actually said, questions of register might fall under this heading. Register is designated by Ure and Ellis (1977, p. 7) as " . . . a certain kind of language patterning regularly used in a certain kind of situation. It

is a social convention. By making use of different kinds of register patterns, people show that they are aware of the social situations in which they find themselves". Register, which includes the association and combination of lexical and grammatical feature in texts, can be seen to have a close association with illocutionary acts, or with how language is used to get things done in the world. The act of requesting, for instance, might be accomplished in different registers governed by variation in time and space, personal and social relations between the speaker and hearer, subject matter, and the specific function of the requesting event, e.g., to actually get something done, or simply to make social contact.

Register, as well as other aspects of language are involved in politeness, which for this study will be considered as being subsumed under the Maxim of Manner. Bates (1976, p. 315), however, following Lakoff, considers politeness to be one of the two major pragmatic rules. The other major rule is clarity, under which all Grice's maxims are subsumed.

Although it is obvious that there are regularities in conversational transactions, the way in which these regularities are codified varies from writer to writer. Such is the case with turn-taking in conversation. Turn-taking is certainly connected with politeness and it is related to Grice's maxims of quantity and quality; yet it is so complex within itself that Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) were able to establish what they term "A Simplist Systematics for the Organization of Turn-taking for Conversation". They list as many as fifteen rules for turn-taking, the first three of which are particularly relevant to this study. These three are:

1) Speaker change (re) occurs.

2) One party talks at a time.

3) Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common but brief. (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974, p. 700).

The Role of Conversational Rules

The significance of these delineated rules of conversation is that participants make inferences or implicatures (Grice, 1975, p. 70), based on the expectation that the rules are operating. For instance, if man A says to man B, "I saw your wife having lunch with a tall gentleman today", and man B knows that man A is acquainted with his wife's father, then man B will infer that the "tall gentleman" was not his wife's father. The maxim of quantity requires that man A specify who the man was if he knows his identity. If both participants are to fully understand the above exchange then they must have overlapping realms of world knowledge, and this world knowledge will include shared experiences about how language is appropriate used in particular contexts for particular purposes. Keenan (1976) points out that this aspect of shared knowledge is not uniform across cultural and social groups and that Grice's principles, therefore, are not universally applicable. Among those who do share the same expectations of language use, deviation from the rules should produce dissonance and recognition that the rules are being violated either through ignorance or, as in the examples of the present study, in order to produce an effect of some kind.

Leaving aside for the moment the additional difficulties of relating this knowledge to the processes of reading comprehension,

there is still the problem of how and when this pragmatic knowledge develops.

> A dull, but no doubt at a certain level adequate, answer is that it is just a well-recognized empirical fact that people do behave in these ways; they have learned to do so in childhood and have not lost the habit of doing so; and indeed it would involve a good deal of effort to make a radical departure from the habit. (Grice, 1975, p. 68).

Although Grice is generally correct, investigators of language acquisition can provide at least some more definitive empirical evidence of the child's acquisition of pragmatics.

ACQUISITION OF PRAGMATICS

For many years researchers in language acquisition were concerned with mapping the phonological, morphological, and syntactic development of child language (Menyuk, 1963; Brown, Cazden, and Bellugi, 1969; Berko, 1958; Chomsky, 1969). Even those who were concerned primarily with the semantic development of the child's language (Vygotsky, 1962; Bruner, 1966), although they emphasized the role of linguistic interaction in language growth, paid little explicit attention to the child's growing realization of the purposes of language and to his growing ability to use it for various functions.

Bates (1976) studies the development of pragmatics in children because she sees it occupying "the interface between linguistic, cognitive, and social development" (p. 3). She and her colleagues have studied Italian children, using the cognitive development model taken from Piaget (Inhelder and Piaget, 1958). Their study (Bates, Camaroni, and Volterra, 1975) examined the onset of intentional communication before speech begins and traced it to the first uses of speech. They used a quasi-longitudinal design, selecting three first-

born females, two months, six months, and twelve months of age. These subjects were observed in their homes every two weeks for two subjects and once a month for the other, at which times thirty minutes of video recording was done over a two hour period. Two of the mothers also kept diaries. The study continued until all age groups overlapped. The results of this study indicate that the children develop the capacity for intentional imperatives and declaratives at ten months of age. An intentional imperative is defined as a child's use of an adult as a means to an end, and an intentional declarative is a command (not necessarily verbal) for the listener to attend to or assume some piece of information (Bates, Camaroni, and Volterra, 1975, p. 208). Prior to ten months, the signals to which adults respond are signals for the adult only. The observation led Bates et al. to conclude that the child was not aware of intentionally communicating with his early smiles and cries and therefore was not performing an illocutionary act. Later, words as symbolic vehicles with referents gradually emerged out of the action schema which had served a pragmatic purpose. The emergence of language followed the sequence of vocalization, vocalization as signal, word as signal, and finally word as proposition with referential value. This study provides empirical evidence, although the evidence was gathered from Italian-speaking children, that implicit knowledge of pragmatic language use is present at a very early age and develops out of pre-linguistic schemas.

Three studies of American four year olds were carried out by Shatz and Gelman (1973). These studies showed that the children changed their language register to suit their audience. Although the sixteeen subjects in the first two studies did poorly on a test of egocentrism,

they adequately adjusted their speech production to an adult and to a two year old in both an assigned task and a free conversation setting. These children employed conversational principles even though other aspects of their cognitive development were not unusually advanced.

Dore (1977) studied the speech acts that are performed by preschool children. His study involved four boys and three girls ranging in age from thirty-four to thirty-nine months. These students attended two hours of nursery school four days each week for seven months. Each child was videotaped one hour each month for the last four months of nursery school during a variety of activities such as snacktime, arts and crafts, and free play. According to Dore's classification of the three thousand child utterances that he collected, the subjects performed thirty-two types of illocutionary acts, over one-quarter of which were some kind of requesting. Important to the present study were Dore's observations that for these preschool children, context overrode the literal meaning of a proposition in establishing an illocutionary act (Dore, 1977, p. 232), and that the successful performance of illocutionary acts depended on shared beliefs of speaker and hearer (p. 239). Another interesting observation was that when a speaker used the most direct sentence form of an illocutionary act, e.g., Open the window " . . . the expected illocutionary effect and the expected perlocutionary effect are unequivocally recognized by the hearer as a conventional pair, without inferences on the part of the hearer about the beliefs, expectations or motive of the speaker; but when the speaker uses a noncanonical [indirect] sentence form of the same illocutionary act, the hearer will make inferences of varying degrees concerning the speaker's expected perlocutionary effect" (Dore, 1977, p. 230). He sees

ability to handle noncanonical sentence forms of illocutionary acts developing with age and uses Clark and Lucy's (1975) model, which is referred to later in this chapter, to explain how meaning is derived from these less obvious forms.

It seems to be accepted that:

> Meaning arises and lies within the field of the relation between gesture of a given human organism and the subsequent behaviour of this organisms as indicated to another human organism by that gesture (Tough, 1977, p. 33).

but there is yet no firm body of evidence on which to base a developmental scale of pragmatic function (Wells, 1976, p. 8). Wells' study of preschool children in the United Kingdom led him to the same conclusion that Bates et al. reached with Italian children: the child has the ability to communicate a wide range of pragmatic intention in more or less complex ways (p. 9). Although Dore may classify the speech acts of preschool children and Tough may list the functions of language used by the child, there is no delineation of which pragmatic functions develop prior to others. The extensive work of Bates et al. may be leading to such a delineation if, indeed, one is possible. Because the essence of pragmatic knowledge is fitting language to the context, development of such knowledge will be dependent on the contextual situations experienced.

Proper formalization of theories of comprehension must include pragmatic factors (Clark and Lucy, 1975, p. 71), but obviously not a great deal is known and even less has been formalized about various pragmatic features. Clark and Lucy, in an experiment with twenty-three undergraduates, demonstrated how conveyed meaning may be arrived at. They showed the subjects displays such as: Make the flower pink or do not make the flower blue, one at a time and had the subject choose one

of two options - a pink flower and a blue flower. The response time was measured and provided support for the three step model they propose for constructing meanings that are not explicit.

1) First the listener derives and represents the literal interpretation.
2) He tests this against the context for plausibility.
3) If the first interpretation is rejected, the literal interpretation is combined with an appropriate rule of conversation and the appropriate intended meaning is deduced (Clark and Lucy, 1975, p. 58).

This is the procedure that Dore proposes his preschool subjects used in interpreting indirect speech acts.

The preceding studies confirm that children from a very early age are capable of using pragmatic knowledge in their language exchanges. It remains to be shown if and how such knowledge transfers to constructing meaning from written text.

APPLICATION OF PRAGMATIC KNOWLEDGE IN READING COMPREHENSION

Two general kinds of inferences based on the reader's knowledge of pragmatics are the focus of this study. These two kinds of inference are referred to by Bruce (1977):

> The reader must infer intentions of the writer as he infers intentions of the characters in a story. Failure to understand the author's intentions can cause problems for all levels of comprehension (p. 34).

Bruce goes on to write that recognizing the purpose of a story plays an important role in recognizing what higher level schema to apply. As he says, "Skilled readers don't look for details without reason" (Bruce, 1977, p. 39). But Bruce goes on to acknowledge that

> how children differ in their knowledge of social actions or plans is not known, but cultural differences in terms of function may be more important than phonetic, syntactic, or semantic differences (Bruce, 1977, p. 38).

This view is consistent with the view of Tough (1977) and Halliday (1978). Although Bruce does not offer an explanation of how children use pragmatic knowledge to construct meaning, nor any empricial data on the subject, he does speculate on the skills and knowledge needed to interpret actions at the intentional level. The reader who successfully performs this task must have

1) the ability to plan.
2) knowledge of how certain social actions are typically carried out.
3) the ability to distinguish one's beliefs from one's beliefs about another's beliefs.
4) knowledge of social action patterns. (Bruce, 1977, p. 11-12).

Numbers two, three, and four above are clearly aspects of pragmatic knowledge.

Because empirical data are so scarce, it is not known how successful children are at this intentional processing. Griffin (1977), also without reference to specific empirical evidence, states that some readers do not make use of their implicit pragmatic knowledge when they read text and she lists four types of problems that students might encounter through inefficient use of pragmatic cues.

One study that did involve actual readers in interactions with written text was completed by Beach (1979). Beach investigated differences between high school and college students' inferences about literary dialogue in an attempt to support his model of how readers make

use of their tacit knowledge of speech acts, social conventions, and literary conventions. He suggests that:

1) In responding to literature readers go beyond inferring only characters' utterances to inferring characters intention, goals, beliefs, needs, traits, etc., that are implied by the utterances. Understanding a text has much to do with inferring these implied meanings.
2) Readers employ certain schema in the form of tacit knowledge of discourse conventions to make these inferences. Because readers already know the conventions constituting successful performance of certain acts or the conventions determining appropriate or typical behavior in a certain context, they can infer various implied meanings.
3) Differences in students' responses to literature may have much to do with their development in tacit knowledge of these discourse conventions differences due to the extent or nature of their background experiences. (Beach, 1979, p. 11).

In the Beach study, thirty tenth grade students and thirty college freshmen read a play, gave a free recall, and answered probe questions about the reasons for characters' specific acts. Tenth grade students were selected because of previous indications that students must reach the age of fourteen or fifteen before they are able to interpret the author's thematic intentions.

On the free recall task, Beach found that most students in both groups simply gave restatements of dialogue with few inferences about the characters' goals or intentions. This, he acknowledged, may be a result of the students' interpretation of task demand. On the specific

probe questions the college students did infer more reasons which involved long-range goals and beliefs, confirming Beach's contention that use of tacit pragmatic knowledge is age related. Griffin's (1977) claim that readers may not employ in reading all the tacit knowledge at their disposal was also confirmed by the fact that even college students did not make inferences based on the characters' long-range goals and beliefs in one-quarter of the specific probes.

Beach's conception of the literary text as a number of individual speech acts within an overall speech act is given a fuller theoretical treatment by Pratt in Toward a Speech Act Theory of Literary Discourse. This book does not contain actual studies, but the theoretical framework that Pratt has developed for understanding literature. She writes

> A literary work may be described as a display text that is composed and addressed to us by an author and in which one or more fictional speakers in a fictional speech situation form a discourse whose intended addressee may or may not include...the reader. (Pratt, 1977, p. 1974).

Her approach to understanding literary discourse places a premium on bringing tacit knowledge to bear explicitly on the text. Of particular significance to the present study is Pratt's statement that "In literary works . . . failing to observe a maxim always counts as flouting and is therefore resolved by implicature" (Pratt, 1977, p. 160). This means that if some speech or discourse convention is not met, the reader must assume the author intended it to be ignored, and make inferences based on this omission. Of course, in order to note that a convention has been flouted, the reader must be making use of his implicit knowledge of these conventions and there is little evidence to indicate if this is done by students.

The ability to spot violations of speech art or conversational conventions, which is examined in the present study, is closely associated with another line of research, that which investigates children's ability to recognize humor which is based on a violation of cognitive expectancies. McGhee (1971a and b) carried out a series of experiments with five, seven, and nine year old boys to determine whether the ability to understand cognitively incongruent humor, based on violation of logical norms, as opposed to novelty humor which is based on violation of physical-perceptual norms, is related to cognitive developmental stage. Using a variety of tasks including explaining the basis of humor, changing the humorous element, choosing the funniest caption and choosing the funniest picture completion, McGhee demonstrated that understanding of cognitively incongruent humor required functioning at Piaget's concrete operational level. He found no significant correlations between humor appreciation and age, which might be explained by Zigler and Levine's (1967) finding that greatest mirth results when the stimulus presents some, but not too much, cognitive challenge.

Suls (1972) has proposed a two-stage model for the understanding of incongruity humor which is very similar to Clark and Lucy's (1975) model for understanding indirectly conveyed requests. Suls suggests that first the reader encounters an incongruity, which means that he must have constructed the literal meaning and found it to be inconsistent with the context. This is similar to the first two steps of Clark and Lucy. In Suls' second step the recipient engages in problem solving to find a rule which makes the punch line appropriate. The "rules" with which Clark and Lucy, and the present investigator, are concerned are the rules governing speech acts and conversation implicature.

There is evidence, then, that the tacit knowledge of language use which, as an earlier section of this chapter recorded, develops very early in children is a critical factor in the reader's comprehension of humor and other features of written text. There is also some evidence, as well as opinion, that the use of this tacit knowledge is not automatic. Therefore, an examination of the current direction of instruction in this area would be useful.

CURRICULUM CONCERN WITH PRAGMATIC ASPECTS OF READING COMPREHENSION

Explicit instruction in the content of pragmatics is not what one would hope to find recommended in curriculum guides. Rather, there should be opportunity for development of these skills and for their transfer to reading comprehension, as well as direction to the teacher about the necessity of doing this.

The Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide (Alberta Education, 1978) places emphasis on the interdependence of language and experience. The philosophy of the guide states that there should be active involvement in a variety of language situations which reflect the range of language function in the real world (Alberta Education, 1978, p. 2-3). Elsewhere in the Curriculum Guide both Halliday's functions of language (p. 16) and Tough's classification of language uses (p. 23) are listed, indicating that this guide should make teachers aware that the various functions of language are important and opportunities should be provided for their development in school programs. Although the Language Arts Curriculum advocates an integrated program involving speaking, listening, reading, writing, and viewing, the stress on language function is associated most heavily with oral language. The section on reading

(Alberta Education, 1978, p. 44), points out that limitations in the child's oral language development, in language patterns, and vocabulary will restrict reading process. Reading comprehension is said to rely on a number of skills among which are the ability to recognize and state the author's purpose in writing, to see the motives of the author, and to determine the author's attitude towards the reader. These are all central pragmatic skills. Nowhere, however, is there reference to the ability of the reader to infer goals and beliefs of the characters and to mentally provide the social context and relationship in which the characters interact.

It may be observed, then, that the Alberta Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide adopts a philosophy that is conducive to transferring the use of pragmatic knowledge to reading comprehension, but that there is no actual mention made of such instruction. There may be some disguised advice to facilitate such transfer in the guide's reference to a language growth pattern: active to oral to written (Alberta Education, 1978, p. 14). Although the Guide makes only very general statements on this pattern, it is part of the structure that Moffett (1968, 1973) advised for language arts curriculums. The sequence that he recommends is based on increasing distance in time and space between speaker and hearer. This he sees as parallelling developing abstracting ability. The sequence, in simplified form, would be:

what is happening	drama
what happened	narrative
what happens	exposition
what may happen	logical argumentation

Following Moffett's sequence, instruction would begin with drama, which he defines as " . . . any raw phenomena as they are first being converted to information by some observer" (Moffett, 1968, p. 61). Drama is an active procedure which is central, as "acting out" in all Moffett's program (1973).

The value of such "acting out" in assisting the child to infer implied meaning is supported by a study by Paris and Lindauer (1976). In an attempt to see if young children could be induced to make inferences about implied instruments in such sentences as: The man dug a hole (shovel). Paris and Lindauer directed the ten grade one students in their study to "act out" each sentence after they heard it. The acting out procedure led to much greater ability to use the inferred instrument as an aid to recall than did simply listening to the sentences without acting.

It appears, then, that simulation, especially if these simulations are specifically directed at certain types of pragmatic learning, may be helpful in assisting students to transfer implicit oral language knowledge to explicit use in reading comprehension.

Even if the necessary instruction is given, all students may not apply their pragmatic knowledge at the same level in every circumstance. Biggs (1978), attempting to develop a rating scale for the quality of school learning which is associated with Piaget's (Inhelder and Piaget, 1958) developmental stages but is applied to the product rather than to the producer, points out that response quality is tied to noting and relating relevant data. A middle concrete response, for instance, requires noting several relevant points and a concrete generalization requires the noting and relating of these points. Use of pragmatic

knowledge, as the Clark and Lucy and the Suls models illustrate, requires the relating of relative dimensions, which accounts for McGhee's finding that young children were unsuccessful in noting cognitive incongruities and resolving them.

Much of the information presented in this chapter has been theoretical and speculative. The present study was designed to gather some evidence for how actual students do make use of pragmatic knowledge when reading classroom material.

RELATIONSHIP OF THIS STUDY TO THE LITERATURE

The present study accepts that students will have developed certain aspects of pragmatic knowledge, although the amount of knowledge will vary from child to child, and that this knowledge should therefore be available as part of the cognitive schema which the reader uses to construct meaning from written text. Also accepted by this study are the ideas of Clark and Lucy (1975), Suls (1972), and Pratt (1977) on what is required of the reader as he constructs meaning from literary text, especially when confronted with incongruent information. Recognizing the emphasis the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide places on developing awareness of language function, the investigator sought literary selections from two of the texts recommended in the curriculum guide which showed clear instances of incongruent situational language designed to achieve an effect, usually humorous. The Teacher's Resource Book for two of the selections (McInnes, Wheatley, and Quildon, 1977) was examined to see if the teacher was directed to help students transfer their pragmatic knowledge to comprehending literature text. Although teachers are advised in the resource book to help students pick

out physical incongruities in the fantasy, there is no mention of encouraging the reader to consider the purpose for which author and characters are using language. The authors either assume children automatically use their implicit knowledge, or they are not aware that its use is essential.

This study, then, making use of methodology from both McGhee (1971a and b) and Beach (1979), explored the students' performance in inferring the author's intention, in noting incongruities, both physical and linguistic, and in using pragmatic knowledge to remove incongruities involving appropriate conditions for speech acts, relevant conversational contribution, polite manner of conversation, and appropriate register. The study's relationship to the foregoing literature involves providing a small amount of empirical evidence of students' use of pragmatic knowledge in construction meaning from imaginative literary text.

CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The questions investigated in this study required an experimental design that allowed students to react to regular classroom reading materials. The sample, the pilot study, the data collection, and the categorization, scoring, and analysis of the data will be described in this chapter.

SAMPLE

For this study, it was necessary to obtain a sample of subjects, a sample of stimuli to which the subjects responded, and a sample of behavior in response to these stimuli. All three samples will be described.

Subjects

The population from which the sample was chosen consisted of the grade five students from five Edmonton Separate Schools who had scored at or above the fiftieth percentile on both vocabulary and reading comprehension on the Edmonton Separate School District norms for the Canadian Test of Basic Skills written by these students at the end of grade four. This population was chosen because: 1) the subjects can be assumed to have reached the stage of concrete operations which has been shown to be necessary for the recognition of the kind of incongruity used in this study, and 2) the subjects can be assumed to have few word identification problems when reading grade five material.

Officials of the Edmonton Separate School system designated five schools, in widely separated geographic areas of the city, which were not using the Nelson Language Development Reading Program or the Sounds of Language Readers in their basic developmental reading program. The percentile ranks for grade four in Spring, 1978 on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills were used to make a list of students who scored at or above the fiftieth percentile on both vocabulary and reading comprehension subtests. From this list, two groups were chosen: the excellent (Group 1), who scored at or above the eighty-fifth percentile on the reading comprehension subtest; and the good readers (Group 2), who scored at or below the seventy-sixth percentile on the same subtest.

From each of these two groups, twenty subjects were chosen for the study sample. In order to obtain maximum potential difference between the excellent and the good readers, the investigator chose the top twenty students in Group 1 and the bottom twenty students in Group 2. These choices were modified slightly in an attempt to achieve roughly equal numbers of boys and girls in each group. Although Group 2 had equal numbers of boys and girls, Group 1 consisted of thirteen boys and seven girls. The investigator decided that maximum separation of comprehension scores between the two groups was more important than equal numbers of boys and girls in each group. Because there were more boys with high scores in Group 1, there were more boys in the study sample. The characteristics of the sample subjects are shown in Table 1. The information on which this table is based is available in Appendix 3.

The sample cannot be considered unbiased because the choice from the population was not random. The sample is thought to be representa-

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE SUBJECTS

CHARACTERISTIC	GROUP 1	GROUP 2
Boys	13	10
Girls	7	10
Mean Age	10 years 9 months	10 years 7 months
Age Range	10 years 1 month to 11 years 2 months	10 years 3 months to 11 years 4 months
Vocabulary Percentile Range	80 to 100	50 to 76
Comprehension Percentile Range	85 to 99	50 to 76

tive of proficient and good readers in the system, however, because the schools from which the sample was chosen are situated in widely separated geographic areas of the city and there is no reason to suspect that these students differ from other readers in the system. The investigator acknowledges that proportional variation in percentile rank is not uniform from the fiftieth to the ninety-ninth percentile; a greater increase in raw score is necessary at the upper end of the scale to achieve an increase in percentile rank.

Stimuli

It was part of the purpose of this study to investigate the student's use of his knowledge of situational language use in constructing meaning from imaginative literature that is read in the regular grade-five classroom. If use of such knowledge is not required by the student in his daily reading, then it matters little whether or not he can, or does, use such knowledge. Therefore, the investigator's first task was to determine whether there were selections in the readers regularly used by the students that required use of pragmatic knowledge of language. The materials prescribed in the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide (Alberta Education, 1978) were examined and selections were found that required the reader's use of knowledge of situationally appropriate language as he constructed meaning from the text.

Because the investigator wanted to work with subjects who had not had previous instruction on the stimulus materials used in the study, it was decided to select samples only from the Nelson Language Development Reading Program and from the Sounds of Language Readers (Martin, 1972) because the investigator had observed that these books were

used less frequently in the schools than were the other prescribed series.

Initially, selection of ten short segments was planned, each segment including an instance of humor produced by some form of language incongruity. This design is similar to the one used by McGhee (1971) to study the ability of nine year old boys to understand humor based on conceptual incongruity. However, as the selection proceeded, the investigator realized that reading isolated short segments from a longer passage did not represent a realistic classroom-reading task, and also that the recognition of incongruent language use at a specific point in a selection depended on the context of the entire selection. In addition, recognition of incongruent situational use of language was seen to be interrelated with recognition of other forms of language and non-language incongruity. The task would be more typical of classroom reading activities and the subjects would have more opportunity to use their knowledge of situationally incongruent language if complete passages were used as stimuli; therefore, three selections that contained instances of incongruent situation language use were chosen:

Selection 1 "The Old Man Who Said 'Why'" by e.e. Cummins (Kites and Cartwheels, p. 97).

Selection 2 "From Out of the Blue" by Wayne Carley (Kites and Cartwheels, p. 199).

Selection 3 "Suppertime" by Clark Gesner (Sounds of a Young Hunter, p. 278).

These three selections, a story, a play, and a song respectively, were taken from grade five reading texts and represent different types and lengths of material that students meet in their classroom reading. All

three, however, were fanciful, fictional selections, and are called imaginative literature in this study. Subjects had not previously read any of the selections.

The readability of the selections was not measured because good students in grade five classes are expected to read material from grade five texts and this study attempted to maintain a situation close to that in the regular classroom. The selections were tested for suitability in the pilot study, which is described later in this chapter.

Responses

In order to allow the subjects freedom to comment on whatever incongruencies they noted, while at the same time insuring that all subjects would be directed to consider common examples of incongruent situational language use, a combination of directed and open-ended questions were used. During the semi-structured interview, the investigator asked the subject:

1) to explain what the author intended the reader to understand.
2) to indicate what seemed funny or strange in the selection.
3) to change designated language exchanges so that they were no longer funny or strange. Included in these language exchanges were instances of:
   a) language that violated the appropriateness conditions for the speech of questioning (The Old Man Who Said "Why", p. 105).
   b) language that violated Grice's (1975) maxim of relevance (From Out of the Blue, p. 208).

c) language that violated canons of politeness in conversation (From Out of the Blue, p. 210).

d) language that violated Grice's Maxim of Manner by displaying inappropriate register (Suppertime, p. 278).

4) to explain what cues indicated to him that the selection was not about realistic, everyday events.

The interview guides are available in Appendix 1.

DATA COLLECTION

Each student silently read each selection. All possible orders of presenting the three selections were determined and the orders were randomly assigned to the subjects. Following the silent reading of each selection, the semi-structured interview was conducted.

Administration

Each subject was seen individually by the investigator for a period of from thirty-five to seventy-five minutes in a private room in the subject's school. The rooms were relatively quiet and free from interruptions. The investigator began by introducing herself and the purpose of the study, stressing that there were no necessarily "right" answers to most of the questions. In order to put the subject at ease and also to gather information about the free-reading habits of the student, the investigator asked several questions about what the student liked to read and what he was currently reading. This gave the investigator some indication of the amount and kinds of reading done by the subject. The introductory comments and reading interest questions are in Appendix 1.

Each selection was presented with a very brief introduction, and the student's uninterrupted silent reading was timed. Students were assured in advance that the investigator was not concerned with the reader's speed. Although the investigator did not relate speed to other aspects of the study, she did want to see if there was a difference in reading speed between the groups.

When the subject completed reading a selection, the semi-structured interview for that selection was conducted. The investigator made no comments on the responses other than requests for further explanation and general approval for cooperation. In some cases, amplification by the investigator was needed before the subject could respond to specific questions. The interview was audio recorded and the tapes were transcribed by the investigator.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study to assess the suitability of the three selections chosen, to evaluate the semi-structured-interview guide, and to provide a preliminary general plan for analysis of the data generated.

Four students, three from Group 1 and one from Group 2, from one of the schools in the sample were chosen for the pilot study. These students were not included in the main study.

The results of the pilot study indicated that the chosen selections stimulated good response, that they were enjoyed by the students, and that the entire interview with one student could be conducted in from thirty to sixty minutes, depending on how quickly he read. The three selections were therefore retained.

In the pilot study the same interview format was used with all selections and the questions were open-ended. The investigator used whatever response the student gave as a basis for more probing questions. Figure 1 shows the flow diagram of the questioning used in the pilot study to elicit responses to the two questions dealing with identifying and changing incongruity. Two problems with this approach emerged: first, the selections allow such a variety of responses that there was little common specific content on which to base a comparison of responses; and secondly, the probes of the examiner were seen to have an influence on the responses of the subjects, and because they differed from subject to subject, the probes were difficult to control. As a result of the pilot study, separate interview guides, including references to some specific language exchanges, were designed for each selection. These are the guides that are in Appendix 1.

The data generated in the pilot study indicated that a system of analysis arising from the data would be most useful.

DATA ANALYSIS

Complete transcripts of the interview were made from the tape recordings. Responses to questions A, B, and D were divided into idea units. It was not necessary to segment the responses to question C because the total response was judged appropriate or inappropriate, depending on the kind of change made. A modification of Squire's (1964, p. 17) method was used to segment the responses to questions A, B, and D. Squire defined a response as " . . . the smallest combination of words which conveyed the sense of a single thought". In this study, information that supported a specific idea was grouped with that idea to

A. Did you think any parts of this selection were funny or strange?

If yes, What? — If no, go to B

If language use given, Why? Then go to D — If language use not given go to B

B. Did you think any of the things that anyone said in this selection were funny or strange in some way?

If yes, What and Why? — If no, go to C

If language use given go to D — If language use not given go to C

C. The author thought (designated exchange) might be considered funny or strange. Tell me why some people might think it funny?

If language use given go to D — If language use not given go to D

D. Can you change this section so that it is no longer funny or strange. Just change the part that makes it funny or strange.

E. (Same exchange as C) might be tought to be funny or strange because it does not "fit" with what is going on in the story at the time it is said.

Then go to D

FIGURE 1

FLOW DIAGRAM OF QUESTIONING IN THE PILOT STUDY

form one unit. For example, there are four idea units in the following response as indicated by the vertical slashes.

> Well these guys had wings - we don't know if that's true, but to our knowledge it's not true/and man can't live on a moon without air/and he couldn't have gone through space - like flew through space/and can't grow apple trees in space./

This method of division requires the scorer to be aware of the question and to assess the response in relation to the question asked, deciding whether each statement introduces a new idea as an answer to the question or merely gives information about, or evidence for, an idea already stated. For example, in response to the question "What do you think the author intended us to understand from this selection?", the following answer for selection one consists of one idea unit.

> He told you the details like about the people like where they took their troubles to and about that little old man.

The investigator concluded that this type of unit, which might consist of a word, a sentence fragment, or several sentences, allowed the best analysis of the differences in the subjects' ideas about the various questions. A more strictly defined unit based on syntactic criteria would be easier to apply, but would result in distortion of the data for the purposes of this study, which focused on the subject's use of his pragmatic language knowledge.

Because the intention was to examine the use the subject made of his prior knowledge of appropriate situational language, and it was not known in advance whether subjects would use this knowledge as a basis for constructing meaning from written text, the response categories for each question were determined "a posteriori" and are discussed in Chapter IV.

After the data had been categorized, tabulated, and recorded, two kinds of analysis were applied. A qualitative analysis examined, compared, and attempted to explain the responses that were given for each question on each of the three selections by good and excellent readers. This analysis will be reported descriptively with bar graphs being used where needed to illustrate the proportions of various kinds of responses. In addition, chi-square analyses were used to ascertain whether or not there was a relationship between the kind of response given and the group, good or excellent readers. No quantitative values were given to the categories of response; therefore only frequency data were available for use in statistical analyses. A chi-square analysis was done on each response category for every question in each selection, e.g., the relationship between making a category 4 response to question A in Selection 1 and being in either Group 1 or Group 2 was examined. The relationship between sex and selected responses was also examined.

The categories on which all analyses were based are described with examples in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

CATEGORIES OF RESPONSE

After the tapes had been transcribed, lists were made of all the responses to each of the four major questions. Responses to Questions A, B, and D were divided into idea units as described in Chapter III, and then categories were developed for the responses to each question. Although these categories were in some cases based on those used in other studies (Beach, 1979; McGhee, 1971), they were derived "a posteriori" in order to reflect the variations in the subjects' ideas.

The categories derived for each of the four major questions are described below.

Identifying Author's Intention

Question A, which was "What do you think the author intended us to understand from this selection?", was designed to examine whether or not the subject understood that the author might have a message he wanted to convey to the reader, apart from the actual events of the selection. The categories established, then, represent both the kind of information given by the subject in response to the question, and the possible thinking processes that the subject used to arrive at his answer. The categories used by Beach (1979) in his analysis of inferences from literary dialogue made by high school and college students were considered by the investigator in establishing the response categories for Question A.

Category 1 A Category 1 response is a restatement or a summary of events in the selection. There are six idea units in the following

response, all of which are classified as Category 1 responses.

> ...they find like this rock and the spaceship/and then they fly to Ottawa/and then they get to meet the press/...and they found out that the minister sent it back off into space./But they were still gonna tell some of their friends,/but they didn't think they'd believe them./

Although the preceding response is quite long and is obviously a recounting of events, some Category 1 responses are short.

> The faerie was trying to stop the old man who said why;
>
> .....
>
> It was suppertime for Snoopy.

The feature that determines a Category 1 response is its reproduction, through enumeration or summary, of the literal events of the selection.

Category 2 A Category 2 response represents a restatement or an inference concerning setting or characters in the selection. Statements about how the characters felt, such as, "Snoopy liked to enjoy his supper", usually involve an inference and are classified as Category 2 responses. These responses do not contain an inference about the author's overall intended message. The following are Category 2 responses.

> That this is a different planet n'way out in space. I think. (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> .....
>
> Well he [the minister] doesn't want everybody to know the truth how something might be too bad to know. (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> .....
>
> Charlie Brown's kinda impatient because he's saying he had to hold it for a whole minute. (Selection 3, Group 1).

Category 3 A Category 3 response is one that represents an inference about the techniques the author used or the plans he had, but

does not include the intended message itself. For instance, the three responses below state the author's plan, that is, he plans to explain a press conference, to provide details, or to describe Snoopy's character, but the content of the message is not given.

> He told you the details, like about the people, like where they took their troubles. (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> .....
>
> Well trying to explain what happens at a press conference. (Selection 2, Group 2).
>
> .....
>
> He wanted you to understand Snoopy and how good he felt about his supper. (Selection 3, Group 2).

This type of response may represent an inappropriate kind of abstraction as opposed to a more concrete, particular response. For the purpose of this study, it is considered a step towards the understanding that there may be an intended message in a written discourse.

Category 4 A Category 4 response represents an intended message of the author. The subject, generalizing from the content of the selection, infers what the author wants to say to the reader. One subject inferred that the author's message in Selection 2 was "that you should tell the truth most of the time."

Any response that was a generalization containing a possible author's intended message was classed as a Category 4 response. Obviously there may be different generalizations from a single selection and there was no attempt in the categorization to assess the quality of these. All of the following answers were classified as Category 4 responses to Question A, Section 1.

> People can bug you by saying one word.
>
> Well that old people like if they don't have anybody to communicate with, they don't know really how to communicate.

That people are very curious.

Try to understand people.

Well if you have troubles, you can go to other people.

How the first child was born, A very old man doesn't talk that much and a baby is new.

You should listen to what people say.

In the qualitative analysis of responses, an attempt will be made to account for these differences and to suggest which of these responses to Question A, Selection 3, might be considered the more thoughtful response.

Don't play with your food.

That we should try to enjoy supper and not gobble it down.

Although a Category 4 response is considered by the investigator to be a more appropriate representation of the author's intended message than is a Category 1 response, no numerical value is given to the responses. The scale is merely nominal.

Identifying Incongruity

Question B for each selection asked the subject to identify parts of the selection that seemed funny or strange to him. The purpose of the question was to examine the extent to which the subjects identified physical incongruities akin to those McGhee (1971) labelled novelty stimuli; and incongruities based on a mismatch between the language use or behaviour in the selection and that use which the subject knows to be acceptable. According to McGhee's findings, the more challenging cognitive task, and the task that requires the equivalent of Piaget's stage of concrete operations, is the identification of instances of logical incongruity.

McGhee's (1971a, p. 125) descriptions were considered when the following categories were derived.

Category 1 A Category 1 response is one noting a physical incongruity, that is, a situation or event that is contrary to what exists in the physical world.

> Well I found many parts strange. People flying around with wings all over the place/and the wise man drank and ate some light and silence/(Selection 1, Group 1).

The above response contains two idea units, both of which were classed as Category 1 responses. Examples of other Category 1 responses are listed below.

> Well its sort of strange that dogs - like dogs don't sing really. (Selection 3, Group 2).
>
> I thought some of it was strange, when they held the rock then they told the truth. (Selection 2, Group 2).
>
> Well a space ship landing on a farm. (Selection 2, Group 2).

Category 2 Responses in this category indicate recognition of a language relational incongruity. There are three sub-categories.

2a Social Contextual Incongruity This type of response recognizes that the actions of characters is incorrect or unusual, although not physically impossible, in the given context. Language need not be involved. The responses below are examples of Category 2a.

> Well it's kinda strange the way Charlie Brown mentioned that Snoopy was jumping all over the place. He said "why can't you eat like any other dog." (Selection 3, Group 2).
>
> When all the people came up to him and kept telling him to do all this stuff and then they all left him alone and he had to do it by himself. (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> They were singing about eating. (Selection 3, Group 1).

2b Conversation Principle Incongruity This type of response

recognizes that one of the Gricean maxims, one of the appropriateness conditions for a speech act, or another conversational rule has been violated. For instance, the response: "...they were in the conference part and ...she puts up her hand and - 'What do you put in your stew?'", illustrates recognition of a violation of the Gricean maxim of relevance. Recognition of failure to comply with the appropriateness conditions for the speech act of questioning is shown in the response "The faerie was talking to the man who said why and he kept on asking why". The subject who replied, "...Noreen, Brad and Flash altogether said, 'Holy cow what a story! I've got to get the camera man.' They said it all together and it was funny." recognized that the rules of turn-taking in conversation had been violated. The response "Well Snoopy acted like a poet or something...Behold the brimming...." indicates that the subject had noted a violation of Grice's maxim concerning the manner of speaking.

2c Syntactic-Phonetic-Phonemic Incongruity Responses in Category 2c comment on a variation from the accepted syntactic, phonetic, or phonemic usage in order to achieve an effect. Some of these incongruities might be called "word-play" as was noted by some subjects. The following responses were placed in Category 2c.

> Ya! It goes like very, very, very, and millions, and millions and millions. They said so many words again and again and they could just say it once. (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> Well the parts here when he says supper-sooper, dooper. It was kinda like a tongue twister, you know. (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> ...And they said Mooseface Saskatchewan; it's Moose Jaw. (Selection 2, Group 1).

Removing Incongruity

Question C asked the subject to change a particular speech example so that it would no longer be funny or strange. McGhee (1971a) used a similar procedure to measure the subject's comprehension of the humor stimuli in his study. If the subject can mentally transform the language used so that it conforms with the situational context, and is therefore no longer funny or strange, he is assumed to have a knowledge of correct situational language use and to be able to make inferences from that knowledge. A two-category system, similar to McGhee's, was used to classify responses to Question C.

Category 1 Adequate Response An adequate response changes either what is said or the non-language situational context such that the two are congruent. The type of pragmatic knowledge that must be used to make an adequate change is different for each example. Adequate removal of incongruity is demonstrated in the responses below.

> The minister could say, "No thank you. I want to finish this right now." (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> Instead of Behold the brimming bowl, say "Here comes Charlie Brown with my bones. (Selection 3, Group 2).
>
> I have a question I'd like to ask you. "How did you feel when the spaceship landed on your backyard?" (Selection 2, Group 2).
>
> He could make the old man say, instead of why, he could answer the question. (Selection 1, Group 1).

Category 2 Inadequate Response A response classified as Category 2 makes no change or makes a partial change at the word or phrase level that does not make the language fit the total context. The following changes are considered inadequate.

You could say How? (Selection 1, Group 1).

The old man could say why is everyone making a fuss, instead of just why. (Selection 1, Group 1).

Well that would only make it worse Mrs. Maple. Your coffee tastes like it's burnt. (Selection 2, Group 1).

I'd just put which has been to quench our thirst. (Selection 3, Group 2).

Recognizing Clues to Incongruity

Question D asked the subject what made him think that the selection was not about everyday realistic events. The purpose of this question was to examine the clues to incongruity used by the subject. The resulting responses were in fact similar to those in Question B, but there were some differences. Some subjects referred to their prior knowledge of literary conventions, for instance.

A two-category classification was used for these responses.

Category 1 Recognition that some feature in the selection is at odds with the subject's knowledge of the physical world. Examples of such responses include:

The dog started talking. (Selection 3, Group 2).

You usually don't find truth rocks. (Selection 2, Group 2).

The guy had gold wings. (Selection 1, Group 2).

Category 2 Recognition that some feature of the selection is at odds with the normal social-linguistic relationships between characters in specific situations, or that some aspect of the selection conforms to a known convention indicating non-reality. Although responses in this category clearly differ from those in Category 1 as to the type of prior information used by the subject, many different kinds of responses fit within this category. This qualitative analysis will

attempt to describe the differences among Category 2 responses such as:

> Well it's Charlie Brown and Snoopy because they're usually all funny. (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> Cause they had this big press conference with reporters. (Selection 2, Group 2).
>
> Well it said right here it was in the future, so in the future usually the future is usually funny. (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> Well like it said everybody was happy. (Selection 1, Group 1).

The categories described in this chapter were used to classify the answers to the four major questions asked of the subjects. These data were also used in the chi-square analyses of the relationships between good and excellent readers and the kinds of responses made. Further qualitative analysis is described in later chapters.

RELIABILITY OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES

After the investigator had categorized all the responses, the reliability of the category descriptions was determined by an independent judge who was a university graduate in an unrelated field. It was the opinion of the investigator that the categorizations of a judge who had no information about the categories other than the explanations given in this chapter would provide an unbiased measure of the clarity and reliability of the categories.

Separate interrater comparisons were done on the categories used for each of the four questions. After the investigator presented the category descriptions for each set of responses to the independent judge, he was permitted to ask questions about the examples and about several practice responses which he categorized. Twenty responses were

then randomly chosen from all responses to that question and these responses were assigned categories independently by the judge and by the investigator. The judge had access to the written category descriptions while classifying the responses. Agreement between the investigator and the judge was calculated according to the formula used by Feifel and Lorge (1950):

$$\frac{2 \times \text{agreements}}{2 \times \text{agreements} + \text{disagreements}}$$

All percentages of agreement were above 90 percent, but varied from question to question. On the categories used for author's intention, the agreement was .95, all disagreements being between categories 3 and 4. The investigator rated such responses as: "He wanted you to understand Snoopy and how good he felt about his supper", as an inference about the author's technique, whereas the judge rated it an intentional response. Agreement in categorizing the type of incongruity noted was .92. Some difficulty was experienced by the judge in discriminating among the subcategories of the language-relational incongruities, but not between the physical and language-relational incongruities. It is true that a syntactic-phonemic incongruity such as: "super, duper, supper, dupper", might also be considered a social-contextual incongruity, thereby creating some category overlap. The investigator placed questionable responses in the conversational principle or syntactic-phonemic incongruity categories rather than in the social-contextual category. Agreement on the categorization of the final questions was high: .97 for removal of congruity and perfect agreement (1.0) for cues to lack of realism.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

There are three sections in this chapter. First, the results of the statistical analysis of the responses are presented and discussed. The second section includes the qualitative analysis of the responses to the questions concerning author's intention, identification of incongruity, and cues used for making judgements about the selections. Finally, general information that was collected about the reading habits of the subjects is presented and related to the responses previously analyzed.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

A chi-square analysis was carried out on each type of response for each question to determine if there were relationships between group membership and particular responses. None of the chi-square values was significant at the .05 level, indicating that there was no significant relationship between being a member of Group 1 (excellent readers) or of Group 2 (good readers) and making a particular response. The fact that there may be some overlap among categories and that the frequency of some types of response was very low may have affected the chi-square values. Because the results were similar for every question, however, it appears that these excellent and good readers performed in very similar ways when using pragmatic language knowledge to construct meaning from imaginative literary text. The chi-square tables are in Appendix 5.

The only two relationships that approached significance were those between group membership and reading time for Selections 1 and 2

(significance = 0.0550). The mean reading times and standard deviations for both groups on all three selections are shown in Table 2.

In this study the assignment to groups of good and excellent readers was based on scores on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills, which is a timed test. It may be that speed is an important factor in performance on that test. The relationship between speed and other aspects of reading performance is not examined in this study, but is an interesting one in light of the lack of signficiant relationship between group membership and type of response. It should also be noted that on Selection 3, which is a very short selection,the relationship between group and reading time did not approach significance (significance = 0.3329).

One other type of relationship was examined for selected responses. On these selected responses there was no significant chi-square relationship between the type of response and sex of the subject in either group; therefore, responses of girls and boys will not be designated in the following analysis and discussion.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Inferring Author's Intention

The responses to the question concerning the author's intended meaning fell into four categories; inferred intention, inferred technique, inferred traits of character or setting, and restatement of events. These categories have been defined in Chapter IV. The percentages displayed in Figure 2 represent the percent of each group's total responses to Question A which fell within each category. It can be seen

TABLE 2

MEAN READING TIMES FOR GROUPS 1 AND 2 ON SELECTIONS 1, 2, AND 3

Reading Time for Selections*	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Selection 1			
Mean	140	742	616
Standard Deviation	169	234	240
Selection 2			
Mean	1221	1624	1417
Standard Deviation	332	652	554
Selection 3			
Mean	130	152	141
Standard Deviation	32	47	42

*Time recorded in seconds.

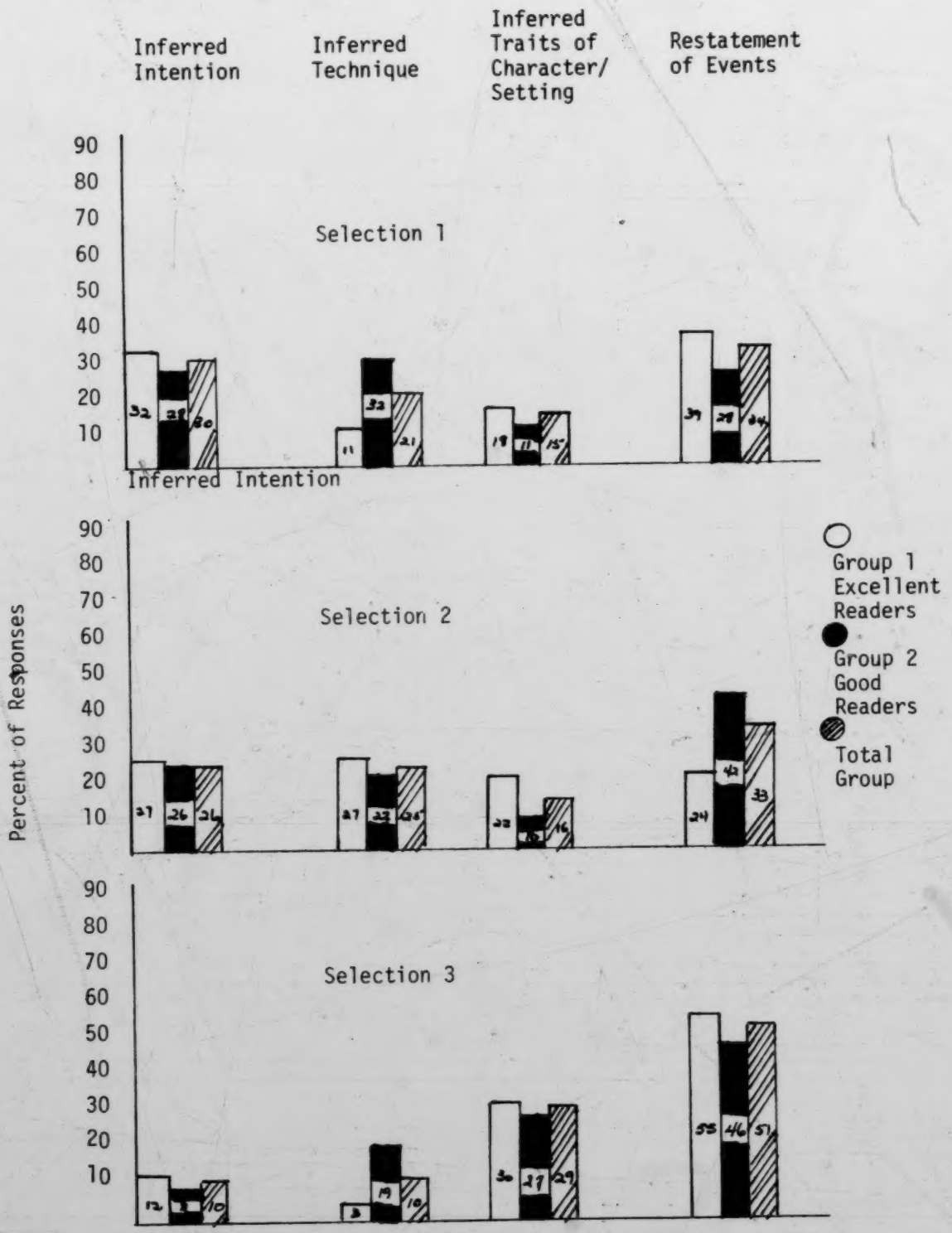


FIGURE 2

PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP'S TOTAL RESPONSES TO QUESTION A IN EACH CATEGORY FOR EACH SELECTION

that the greatest number of responses to all three selections were restatements of events. This is consistent with the finding of Beach (1979) in his study involving the free recall of a play read by grade ten and college students. Some students may have interpreted Question A as a request for a reconstruction of the written discourse. The emphasis which the resource books accompanying the readers place on getting the main idea and on manipulating the events through various types of classification could lead to similar task expectations about this question in the study.

Even though the greatest number of responses were restatement responses, the number of subjects who made some inference about the intention, either of the author or of the characters in the selection, was impressive, especially considering the conclusion made by Beach (1979), after his survey of related studies, that only students of fourteen or fifteen were capable of making inferences about author's thematic intentions.

Two important points must be made regarding the inferring of intentions by the subjects in this study. First, the responses in the inferred technique and in the inferred setting or character categories often indicate some degree of use of pragmatic information. Secondly, the responses in the inferred intention category show much variation in quality.

Use of Partial Information Responses such as "...that Snoopy is excited about supper and can't eat because he's so excited", and "...that the minister of communications, like at first he didn't really want anybody to know like about this thing because he didn't really know what it was..." indicate that the student has inferred an internal state of

motivation of the character from what the character has said and how he has said it. Because the two discourses consist entirely of conversational exchanges, students must have made their inferences from the language events. It is conceivable that an author's total intention for a discourse might be to convey information about a character's internal states and motives. The investigator believes that such was not the case in these selections, but that students failed to consider enough information from the selection and so inferred something which was only part of the author's overall intention.

Another kind of problem with generalizing led to responses in the inferred technique category. Students who made these types of responses obviously made some inferences about the author's plans. This type of response, in fact, might be seen as a "reproduction" rather than an "inferring" error. A response of this kind would be similar to a topic as opposed to a main idea, e.g., "Where the gopher makes his home", instead of "A gopher makes his home in burrows in fields or banks". Examples of this type of response include, "He wanted you to understand Snoopy and how he felt about his supper", and "He wanted to tell you why the man in the moon kept saying why". The student perhaps had more particular information which he provided upon further probing, but he had not yet reached the stage where he conceived of the author's intention in specific terms or conceived of answering the question in specific terms. It is impossible to be certain which explanation is correct.

Variations in Quality of Intentional Response The variations in quality of the intentional responses are interesting for several reasons. Some are clearly factually incorrect, but because they did represent a generalization about what the author intended, such responses were

placed in Category 4. Almost all of these incorrect inferred intentions occurred in Selection 2 and included the following:

> Things from outer space can't really harm people or anything like that (Group 2).
>
> There is living things on other planets (Group 2).
>
> That aliens were friendly (Group 2).
>
> Anything that comes from space should go back (Group 1).

This type of error can be explained within Biggs' (1978) Structures of Observed Learning Outcomes as a generalization on one dimension only. The student based a generalization on one event without considering how other events were related to it. This is similar to the process that led to inferred-character-trait responses. Biggs calls this an "early concrete" cognitive level response, but he is careful to point out that this label is characteristic of the response, not of the respondent.

Failure to take all the relevant information into consideration also explains other variations in quality of intentional response. Those students who gave answers such as:

> People can bug you by saying one word (Selection 1, Group 1)
>
> Well if you have troubles you can go other toher people (Selection 1, Group 1)
>
> You should not always go around asking questions (Selection 1, Group 2)
>
> When it's suppertime, come and eat (Selection 3, Group 2)
>
> You should tell the truth and nothing but the truth (Selection 2, Group 2)

were generalizing from their own experiences and from several incidents in the story, but clearly not from all relevant data. This type of response is what Biggs (1978) calls a multistructural response, which he places in the middle-concrete stage and believes to be typical of

students from nine to twelve years of age. The majority of the intentional responses did fall within the multistructural range, but there were a few, such as the following examples, that indicated a tendency to consider all events and therefore to produce a more tentative, while at the same time more accurate, response.

> That you should tell the truth most of the time (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> Telling the truth is pretty good (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> If everyone knew the truth there might be another war or something (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> How children are born (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> How the first child was born...a very, very old man doesn't talk much and a baby is new (Selection 1, Group 1).

Although as previously stated, chi-square analysis revealed that there was no significant relationship between group and any particular response category, these higher level intentional responses were generally made by Group 1 students.

Effects of Experience Another factor that must be considered in analyzing these intentional reponses is the effect of experience, both individual experience and the general social experiences of childhood. Many of the author's intentions were inferred by the students to be didactic, even if, as in Selections 2 and 3, the intentions were not clearly didactic.

> You should not always go around asking questions (Selection 1, Group 2).
>
> Try to understand people (Selection 1, Group 1).
>
> Not to say why so much (Selection 1, Group 2).
>
> Don't play with your food (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> Always tell the truth (Selection 2, Group 2).

These responses occurred in both groups and, while they may be a function of the particular selections, they may also be a product of the child's socialization in this culture. Children learn that if anyone has a message for them it is likely designed to "teach them a lesson". It is also possible that the way in which Question A was asked encouraged the students to make a didactic response.

More personal experiences also had an influence on responses. The boy from Group 1 who gave the following response to Selection 1:

> Well that old people like if they don't have anyone to communicate with they don't know really How to communicate

explained that this problem is not restricted to older people because a foster child of his acquaintance who had not "been around" people who talked with him had the same problem.

The facts that students in both groups presented so many different inferences about author's intention, based on their own experience of language use, and that many of the inferences did represent part of the total author's intention, provide support for the value of group discussion, often in small groups as advocated by Moffett (1973), to provide the opportunity for students to compare their thinking with the thinking of their peers and to incorporate not-thought-of elements into a more satisfying version of their original idea.

Effect of Selection The final observation that is evident from the comparison of responses (Figure 2) is that response type does vary with text selection. Selection 3, which is a dialogue between two characters, seemed the mostly likely to evoke character-related inferences, especially in view of the fact that the characters, Charlie Brown and Snoopy, were known to all subjects. This response pattern did occur. On the other hand, Selection 3 had no obvious "message" as did the other

two selections. One boy in Group 2 said of Selection 1:

> Like he was trying to get some kind of moral to us... I think there would be a moral, but I can't get the idea of it.

Selection 1 is a fantasy written in a fable-like form and this boy's sensitivity to the purpose of such form shows a certain kind of pragmatic awareness, even if he was not able to "pin down" the exact intention. Perhaps sensitivity to this subtle signalling in Selection 1 and to the obvious concern with truth in Selection 2 accounted for the higher proportion of intentional responses for Selections 1 and 2 than for Selection 3.

Summary The responses to Question A suggest that although few grade five students are able to infer author's intention at an extended abstract level (Biggs, 1978), they can, and should be encouraged to, make inferences in this direction, conditioned by the discourse selection and their own social and individual experiences. Inferring author's intention may not be an all-or-nothing process, but rather one that students approach slowly, inferring to the level of their present experience and capacity.

Identifying Incongruity

Question B asked the student to identify anything that he found funny or strange about each selection. The purpose of this question was to investigate whether the students would identify physical incongruities or language-social incongruities, both of which occurred in all selections. The responses were of four general types: physical, social-contextual, conversational, and phonemic-syntactic as described in Chapter IV and shown in Figure 3; but categories 2a, 2b and 2c may be considered

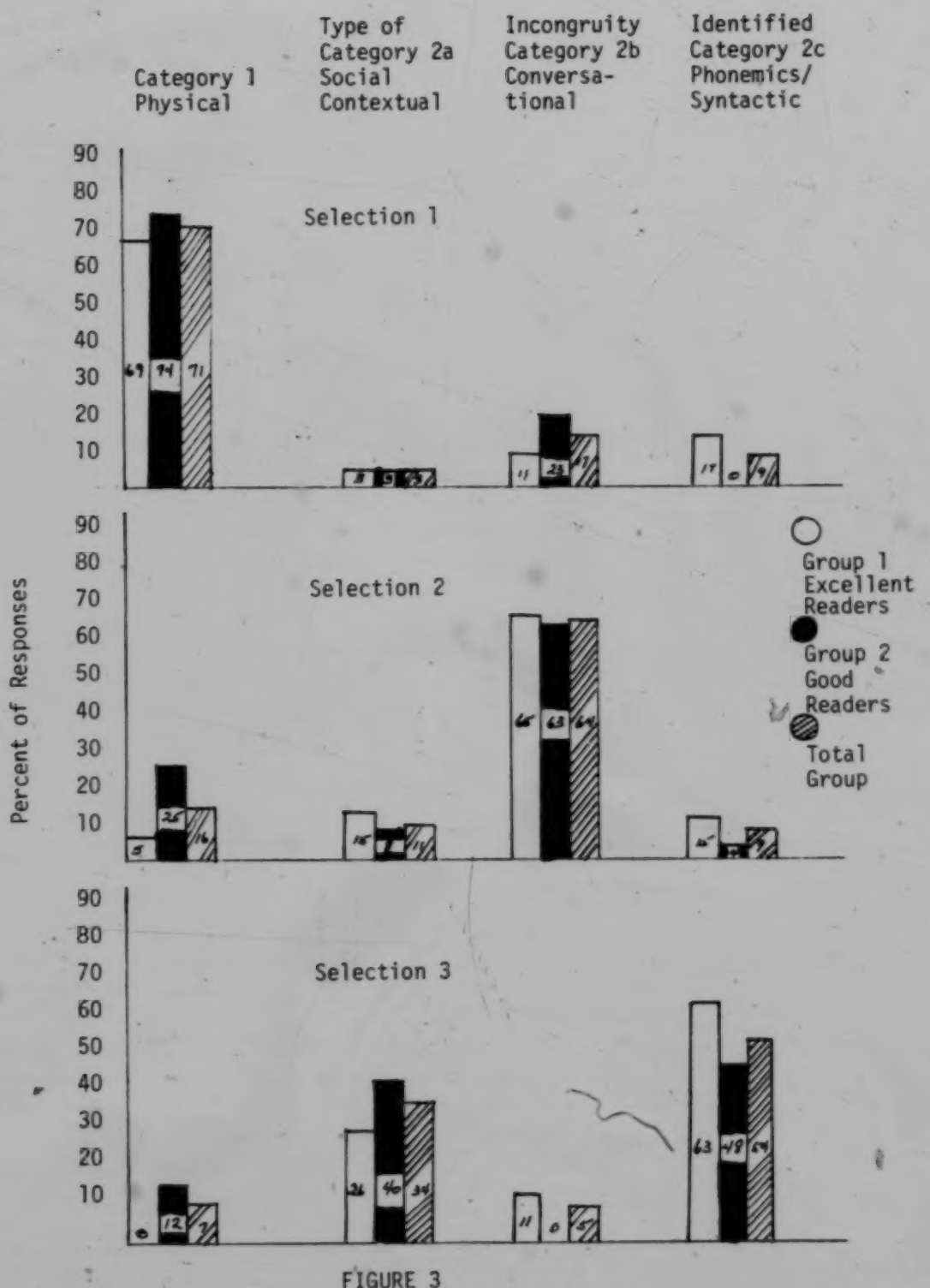


FIGURE 3

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL INCONGRUITIES IDENTIFIED BY EACH GROUP WHICH FELL WITHIN EACH CATEGORY FOR EACH SELECTION

subcategories of a large language-social category of incongruity which depends for its recognition on the use of logical and social, rather than physical-perceptual norms. The latter kind of incongruity has been found to be the easier to identify, especially for young children (McGhee, 1971a). Consideration of these points emphasises two observations that can be made about the results shown in Figure 3: first, these students seemed to be as likely, overall, to note language-social incongruities as to note the supposedly more salient physical-perceptual incongruities; and secondly, the type of incongruity noted varied with the selection. This fact indicated that the students were receptive to the various techniques used by the author to achieve his effects, although in each selection some effects were missed by almost all students.

Selection 1 "The Old Man Who Said Why" by e.e. cummins was the most difficult selection for the students to understand. This difficulty is reflected in the small number of students who gave an author's intended meaning that even approached the author's full meaning, and by the interpretation of the repetitious questioning, not as inappropriate because of the language context, but merely as annoying because it was repetitious. Because the language-social incongruities were more difficult to recognize in this selection and because the physical incongruities were so obvious, it is understandable that 71 percent of the incongruities identified by the total group for this selection should be within the physical category. Elements such as people with golden wings who live on stars, and men who never grow old were mentioned often as "funny or strange". A response such as:

> The part where they said their troubles were wrapped up in boxes with pink wrapping and green ribbons

was classified as a physical incongruity, yet the treatment of troubles in this selection has elements of logical incongruity which were not explored.

There was only one major conversational incongruity in this selection and 17 percent of the total responses did note the inappropriate use of "why". Unaccountably there were more of these from Group 2 than from Group 1.

The syntactic incongruity of repetition of words, which was used throughout the selection by the author, was noted, or at least commented upon, by few students. No Group 2 student included this category in his responses, but several Group 1 students made comments such as:

> Ya cause they always said millions and millions and millions, and they said very, very, very; darker and darker and darker, and they kept saying the words over and over again.

It may be that, although many students gave more than one example of incongruity, some students interpreted the question to require a single response, and having given the most obvious physical incongruity, these students did not mention other incongruities of which they were aware. The specific probe questions in the section on eliminating incongruity provide more information on this possibility.

Selection 2 "From Out of the Blue" was the longest selection and the one preferred by thirty-five of the forty subjects. In explaining why they preferred this play, subjects mentioned that it had elements of science fiction, mystery, and humor. All three of these are high in the list of interests included in the final section of this chapter. Much of the humor in the play derives from violation of various conversational conventions. The many violations of a variety of rules accounts for the large percentage of conversational incongruity responses for

this selection. Recognition of a violation of the Maxim of Relevance is illustrated by the following responses:

> ...when they were describing what happened when the space ship landed, Mrs. Peterson said, "We are having stew." Then one of the reporters said, "Can you please give me the recipe for that stew?" When they're meeting like that it's sort of funny to ask for recipes (Group 2).
>
> One of the reporters wanted to get it over with because he wanted to go see a hockey game (Group 1).

Violation of turn taking as well as relevance is recognized in this response.

> There was this one page that the Petersons like were telling what happened like first of all Mr. Peterson would say something and then Mrs. Peterson would say something. It was sort of repetitious in a funny sort of way (Group 1).

Failure to observe the canons of politeness is referred to by the response:

> Well when the man was telling the secretary the coffee tasted like tar.

Although there were many physical incongruities, such as space ships and truth rocks, in this selection, few of the incongruities identified were of this type. The most likely reason for this is that situational language incongruity, not physical incongruity, was the chief means the author used to produce humor,and the readers, responding to the author's technique, were affected most by the non-physical incongruities.

A few students, of whom the response below is typical, noted social-contextual incongruity.

> Well that reporter Flash - he's all - fancy suit and his hands are all clean and shirt all neat and he's eating at the Greasy Spoon Diner. You kinda think of a man as a cook with a tank top and an apron and flipping hamburgers in the air (Group 2).

In recognizing the mismatch between Flash's dress and his dining place, this student used information from the text and the illustrations.

The investigator was surprised that few students noted the phonemic violations that occurred in this selection. There were a few responses such as:

> And they said Moose Face Saskatchewan; it's Moose Jaw.
>
> Well the Greasy Spoon was kind of funny. Just the title of the thing.

But only one boy in Group 1 commented on the significance of Noreen Newlib and the names of the other reporters. Once again, students may have mentioned only the most obvious incongruities; they may lack the experience to notice the slight variations in language; they may not be sensitive to language variations, although this is unlikely in view of the results in Selection 3; or, in this case, they may not have read carefully, as many students were observed skipping the opening list of characters and stage directions.

Selection 3 The most notable feature of this song from You're A Good Man, Charlie Brown is the playful use of language. This unusual use of language was picked up by the readers, the majority of whose incongruity responses were similar to:

> Well probably the part when he goes supper, upper, dupper like and super, duper, supper.
>
> Well the parts here where he says supper, super-duper supper-time. It was kind like a tongue twister, you know.

An interesting aspect of the distribution of the responses to this selection is the lack of physical incongruity responses. No one in Group 1 gave this type of response, even though a talking, singing dog might be considered funny or strange. It appeared that the students

accepted Snoopy and Charlie Brown as fitting within their own literary sphere and as being perfectly congruent there in a way that the elements of the fantasy by e.e. cummins were not accepted. The students' familiarity with the Peanuts characters could account for this difference, which is further demonstrated by some responses in the social-contextual incongruity category.

> In most movies Snoopy always falls asleep on his dog house.
>
> ...Snoopy keeps on dancing around. He doesn't eat...and usually he likes to eat.

These responses indicate that the reader is judging Snoopy's behavior, not against the behavior of other dogs, but against Snoopy's unusual behavior as it is known from other exposures to him. This recognition indicates an efficient use of a particular kind of literary-pragmatic knowledge.

This use of knowledge did not appear to transfer, in this question, to the recognition of inappropriate register, which was the only conversational principle violated. Very few responses in Group 1 and none in Group 2 noted this particular incongruity. More information on the student's use of knowledge about register will be given by the responses to the probe questions dealing with removing the incongruent register.

Summary This question required the student only to note an incongruity, not to relate the incongruity to other information or to draw conclusions from it. Although all the selections contained obvious physical incongruities, only in Selection 1 were these incongruities noted more often than were language-social ones. Rather, the students appeared to be, for the most part, in tune with the author, noting primarily those incongruities that were used for effect. Therefore, these students seemed to be able to use their pragmatic knowledge to

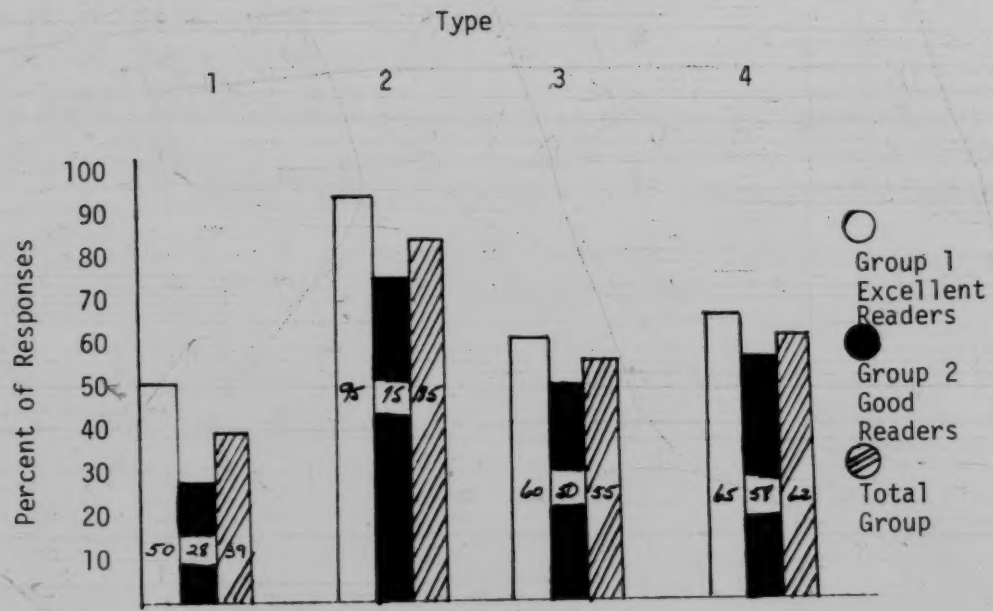
construct meaning, but there were indications that some conventions, such as those concerned with register and with appropriate conditions for questions, were less available for use. The following section will provide more information on this.

Removing Incongruity

Question C, which had four parts, asked the student to change a specific conversational exchange so that it would no longer be funny or strange. Adequately completing this task required that the reader recognize the basis for the incongruity and then change either the words of the speaker or the context of the language exchange so that the two were congruent. Many students, even those who made adequate responses, commented that this was hard. They seemed to find generating changed dialogue more difficult than simply answering questions. If the correction was inadequate, students were asked why the initial response was funny or strange, so that the investigator could assess the basis upon which the students were making changes.

The four examples used represented four types of conversational violation: appropriate condition for questions, relevance of conversational contributions, politeness of conversational exchanges, and appropriate register. The results of the students' attempts to remove these violations are shown in Figure 4.

One observation that can be made from comparing the results shown in Figure 4 with those shown in Figure 3 is that the students had more knowledge of pragmatic conventions than was indicated by their free response to identifying incongruity. Although only 17 percent of the student responses identified the "why" question as inappropriate in



Type 1 - Correcting Appropriateness Conditions for a Question (Selection 1)

Type 2 - Correcting Irrelevant Conversational Contribution (Selection 2)

Type 3 - Correcting Impolite Conversational Contribution (Selection 2)

Type 4 - Correcting Register (Selection 3)

FIGURE 4

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ATTEMPTS BY EACH GROUP WHICH WERE ADEQUATE REMOVALS OF INCONGRUITY FOR FOUR TYPES OF INCONGRUITY

Selection 1, 39 percent of the students could adequately remove this incongruity. In Selection 3, only 5 percent of the total group responses identified incorrect register as an example of incongruity, yet 62 percent of the students could correct the use of register. For Group 2 the change was particularly striking: from no identifications of inappropriate register to 58 percent adequate correction of the violation.

Once again the performance varied with the text presented to the students, some kinds of conversational violations proving much easier than others to correct.

Type 1 The first example was chosen from "The Old Man Who Said 'Why'" and involved the inappropriate use of the "Why" question. In order for a question to be appropriately asked, the following conditions must be met:

1) The asker does not know the answer.

2) The asker believes it is possible that the hearer knows the answer.

3) It is not obvious that the hearer will provide the answer at the time without being asked.

4) The asker wants to know the answer. (Pratt, 1977, p. 81-82).

In the example presented to the student, the first condition, and possibly the third and fourth conditions had been violated. The student, then, had to change the old man's responses to fit the context or change the context. This was a difficult task and the one which gave the students more trouble than any of the other examples. Some of the difficulty was due to the students' misunderstanding of what was inappropriate about the exchange.

There were some students, such as the girl in Group 1 whose response follows, who understood why the question was inappropriate.

> ...you usually don't ask things like that you already sort of know...after what are you doing up here anyway, he'd say something like, "There's nowhere else I'm needed."

Students such as this one made adequate changes, either asking another type of question:

> What will happen to me if I say this certain word? (Group 1)

or changing the old man's response from a question to another type of response:

> The old man could explain why he always says why (Group 1)
>
> So what!
>
> Well, I'll stop doing it then.

Many students, however, as indicated by the responses to author's intention, thought the incongruity was based, not on inappropriate conditions for questions, but on the repetition of a single word which would become very annoying to the hearer. There is some truth in this and it is supported by the information in Selection 1. But changes that were made on this basis did not completely remove the incongruity; they merely extended the "why" question or substituted another inappropriate question which only avoided the word "why".

> Why are they complaining? (Group 1)
>
> He could still say why but he could say "Why did you come from the farthest star?" and things like that, but not just say why (Group 1).
>
> How come? (Group 2).
>
> Like what? (Group 2).

Students who did not correctly remove the incongruity were unexpectedly asked by the investigator, "How old are you?" When the subject told his age, the investigator asked, "Why?" Every student recognized that this was an inappropriate question. Students looked

surprised, chuckled, and, when asked why they were puzzled, gave replies such as:

> I thought it was a dumb question. Well most people on earth that are smart like know what age is (Group 1).
>
> Because everyone knows why you're ten years old! (Group 1).
>
> Well because there is no answer, you're just ten years old (Group 2).
>
> Well it doesn't make sense (Group 2).

It seemed that these students were implicitly aware of the inappropriate conditions for asking "why" question, and recognized violation of these conditions in a familiar face-to-face encounter. They had difficulty, however, transferring this implicit knowledge to a particular literary text. This difficulty might be peculiar to the specific e.e. cummins text, or it might be a more general problem of appreciating the way in which text represents actual experience.

Type 2 This example, which was the easiest for both groups of students, was taken from the play "From Out of the Blue" and involved Noreen Newlib's irrelevant comments on stew during an exchange about the landing of a space craft in a field in Saskatchewan. This exchange was identified by many students in response to Question B as one of the things that was funny or strange about this selection, so it was not surprising that only two students made inadequate changes and four did not offer a change. This latter result is consistent with the previously mentioned reluctance of students to generate new information. Examples of the changes to a relevant contribution were:

> Did anything happen to you when the thing crashed? (Group 2).
>
> If I were her I'd be asking her what she thought of the rock and what she thought of the space ship when it landed (Group 2).

> Maybe instead of asking about the recipe she used for stew, just ask what it was like having a space ship land in your field (Group 1).

Students had no trouble asking questions which fit all appropriateness conditions in their responses to this question.

Type 3 The second example chosen from the play "From Out of the Blue" was more difficult for the students to correct. In this exchange, Mr. Minister refuses Mrs. Maple's offer of coffee in an impolite manner, telling her that coffee would only make things worse because her coffee tastes like three-week-old tar. In order to remove the impoliteness, the student must either have the minister accept the coffee, or refuse it in a polite manner. The latter change requires more careful use of language than does the former and there were some excellent responses of this type.

> Not right now. This is too serious for having a cup of coffee (Group 1).
>
> No thank you, I want to finish this right now (Group 1).
>
> That would make things worse. I can't think when I drink coffee (Group 1).
>
> That would make things worse, Mrs. Maple. I have my false teeth in and coffee stains them (Group 2).
>
> No thanks, I don't want any (Group 2).

Those who made inadequate changes seemed to identify saying "You're coffee tastes like three-week-old tar" with strangeness, funniness, or rudeness, but, although that particular description was removed, the result was no more polite, as can be seen in the following responses:

> I'd put your coffee really tastes awful instead of three-week-old tar (Group 2).
>
> I don't really like your coffee, Mrs. Maple; it tastes really awful (Group 2).

> Well that would only make it worse, Mrs. Maple, your coffee tastes like it's burnt (Group 1).
>
> I don't see why you keep asking me to have your coffee 'cause I never liked it (Group 1).

Type 4 The fourth example, which was chosen from the song, "Suppertime", is an example of inappropriate register. When Snoopy says, as Charlie Brown brings his food:

> Behold the brimming bowl of meat and meal
> which is brought forth to ease our hunger
> Behold the flowing flag on moist and sweet
> which has been sent to slack our thirst

his speech sounds out of place in that context. As one boy in Group 2 explained:

> Sounds like someone in the time of King Arthur. Sort of talks like "My cup runneth over".

Since, as Ure and Ellis (1977) point out, register includes the combination of lexical and grammatical features, adequate removal of register incongruity must make both lexical and grammatical features fit the language context. A good number of students could do this adequately, even though they had not freely identified Snoopy's speech as funny or strange. Many of the responses were succinct, as well as appropriate.

> Oh boy, it's suppertime (Group 2).
>
> I'll be right there, just keep it warm (Group 2).
>
> Where comes Charlie Brown with my bones (Group 1).
>
> Here comes the dog food which makes us feel no longer hungry (Group 1).
>
> Look at that bowl of meat that is brought for me! (Group 1).

Some students suggested that Snoopy drop the speech altogether. This was considered a change in the context and was judged appropriate.

> I'd just make him quiet n'just start eating if I didn't want to make it funny (Group 1).
>
> Well Snoopy just jumps on Charlie Brown and then licks his hand or something and then just walks up and eats. (Group 2).

Those students who failed to make an adequate change either made no attempt at all (six students), or failed to integrate lexical, grammatical and contextual elements. As Biggs (1978) has pointed out, and as was evident in some responses to the question on author's intention, a student may fix upon one element, in this case a word, and not see its connections with the rest of the text. "Slack our thirst" struck some students as odd and so they removed only that part.

> I'd just put which has been sent to quench our thirst (Group 2).
>
> Quench our thirst. Slack our thirst sounds a little strange. I've never heard slack used in that manner (Group 1).

Others thought that "flowing flag" did not fit, but then proposed changes which were not adequate.

> Behold the flowing dish of moist and meat (Group 1).

Four year old children, in the Shatz and Gelman (1973) study, could adjust their oral register to suit their audience. Sixty-two percent of these grade five students made adequate changes in the speech behaviour of a fictional character in a fictional context. Even some who were not successful seemed to realize what they should do. One Group 2 boy concluded that he should

> Put it in easier words to understand, but I can't think of any.

Summary Correcting a conversational incongruity requires the relating of elements within a text as well as a generation of new material. Many, but not all, of these excellent and good grade five

readers were capable of both types of performance. The students showed much greater awareness of pragmatics in this direct probe question than they did in the free identificaton of incongruity, but it was obvious that some forms of incongruity were much easier to correct, indicating that they may have been better understood. Of the four examples given the easiest to correct was the incongruency dealing with irrelevant conversational contributions, followed by those dealing with inappropriate register, impolite exchange, and finally with appropriate conditions for questioning, which was the most difficult. As Figure 4 indicates, Group 1 was consistently more successful than Group 2 in correcting incongruity, although the difference was not statistically significant on chi-square tests (Appendix 5).

Recognizing Clues to Incongruity

Question D asked the student what told him that the selection he had just read was not about everyday realistic events. This question was intended to elicit information about the cues that students used to identify incongruity, but it was not successful for this purpose. The responses that were elicited were similar to those given to Question B, wherein students were asked to identify parts of the selection that seemed funny or strange. To a greater degree than in Question B, however, students tended to identify physical cues. This difference can be seen by comparing Figure 3 and Figure 5. For Selection 2, only 16 percent of Question B responses referred to a physical incongruity, yet 59 percent gave a physical cue to the play's not being about everyday events. The differences in Selection 3 were also obvious, with only 7 percent of responses to Question B giving physical incongruities and 44 percent listing a physical cue in response to Question D. Selection 3 did have

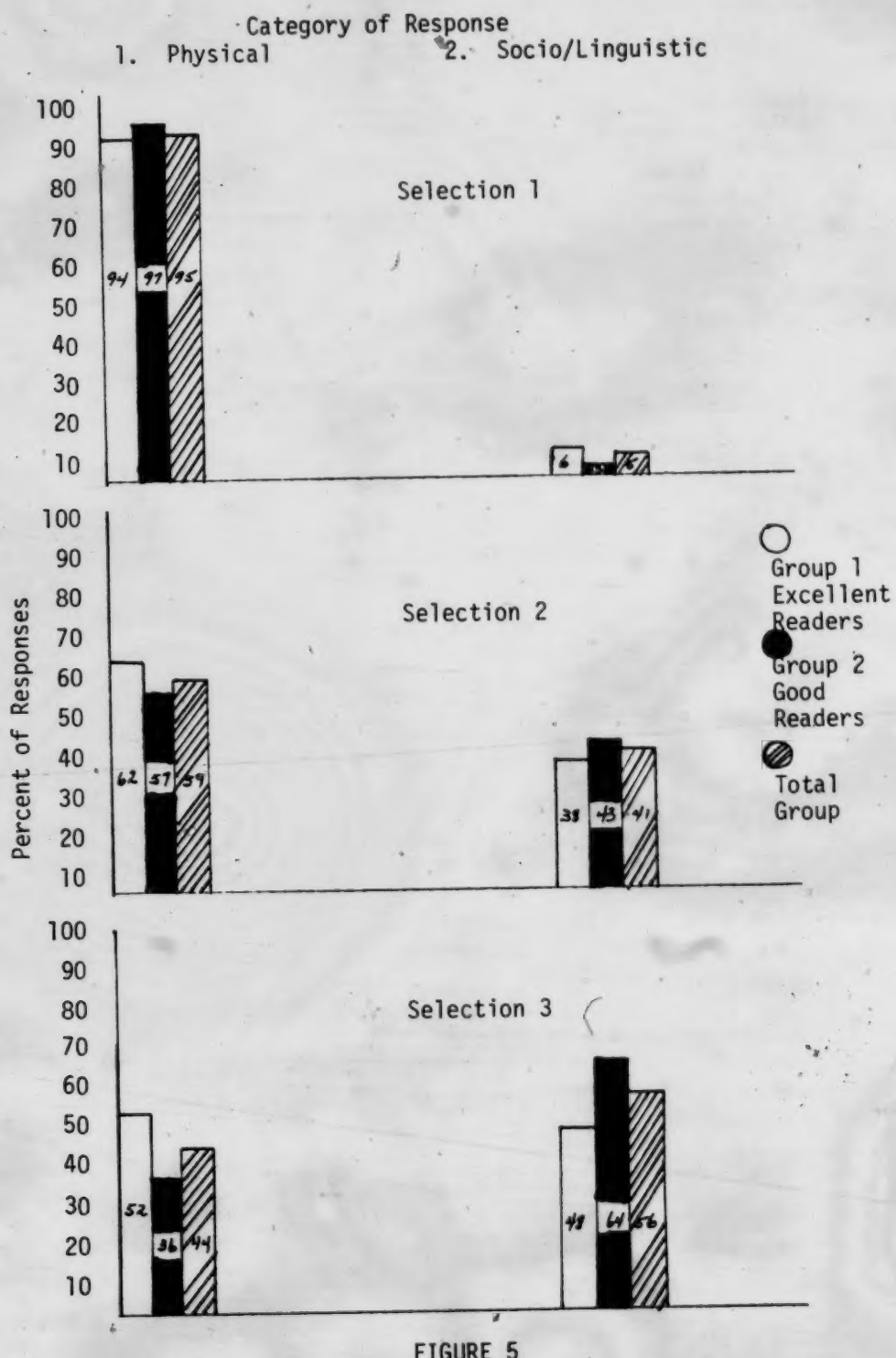


FIGURE 5

PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP'S TOTAL RESPONSES TO QUESTION D WHICH IDENTIFIED THE TWO TYPES OF CLUES TO UNREALITY FOR THREE SELECTIONS

the greatest number of socio-linguistic cues listed because of the readers' awareness of previous literary texts. This factor will be considered later in the section.

The investigator recognized that there were several problems with this question and that these problems resulted in responses that were of little use in investigating the cues used by students to identify incongruity.

First, although asking the reader to identify parts of a selection that are funny or strange may be expected to elicit examples of incongruity, asking the reader to identify what told him the selection was not about everyday events may not elicit comments on incongruity. Many incongruous language events, for instances, are typical of everyday events. Therefore Question D did not actually probe cues to incongruity generally, and in fact, "tipped the scales" in favor of physical incongruities because these are more likely to accompany unrealistic events.

Secondly, this question, coming at the end of the interview on each selection, tended to lead to a general response, or a response to the most salient feature of the selection, rather than to a response concerning the specific instances, as was desired. In other words, the question would have been better placed following the reader's identification of incongruity, asking him to explain how he had spotted this mismatch.

Finally, it is possible that a question about specific cues to pragmatic incongruity should not be asked at all, because the essence of pragmatic knowledge is relationship. Noting a situational language incongruity does not depend on identifying one element. The responses to Questions A and C indicate that fixing on only one element leads to

inadequate conclusions. Therefore indentifying and using pragmatic knowledge in order to identify incongruity, and possibly to construct all manner of meaning from text, may depend on the reader apprehending a "gestalt" or overall view, of language-in-context where a cue is noted only as a part of a whole.

Nevertheless, although the question was inadequate for its designated purpose, responses to it did provide at least one piece of interesting related information. The one type of response to this question which was not given for Question B, identifying incongruity, was a response which referred to some previously known literary device or character as a cue that the selection was not going to be realistic. These responses occurred in Selections 2 and 3 and included:

> Well it said right here it was in the future, so in the future usually the future is usually funny (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> First it said it was in the future... (Selection 2, Group 1).
>
> Sometime in the future and Moose Face. It was sort of change it because you know it's supposed to be really Moose Jaw (Selection 2, Group 2).
>
> ...Charlie Brown isn't usually so happy. He's a born loser so he's usually down in the dumps (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> Well, it's Charlie Brown and Snoopy because they're usually all funny (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> Because Charlie Brown and Snoopy are fun characters (Selection 3, Group 1).
>
> It's a cartoon. I know that because I've seen that before (Selection 3, Group 2).

Students were sensitive to the literary features of Selections 2 and 3, whereas they were not sensitive to the devices of fantasy in Selection 1. This comment must be qualified with the observations that

physical incongruity can be a major device in fantasy and that the Teachers' Resource Book does suggest that the features of a fantasy be developed with the students.

Other kinds of non-physical cues that were identified included events signalling some important happening, such as a press conference or bringing farmers to Ottawa from Saskatchewan; and ways of behaving that are uncommon but not impossible such as singing about suppertime, singing a song to a dog, or getting important information from the Greasy Spoon Restaurant.

Summary The weaknesses in the question prevented the responses from providing information about the cues students use to identify incongruity. The responses did indicate however, that students use previous knowledge about literary format and characters, which can be called a particular kind of pragmatic knowledge, as cues to guide their expectations about the selection. Responses were similar for both groups. There was some indications from these and other data that the effective use of pragmatics requires the apprehension of the total situation and of the relationships of elements within the situation rather than the noting of specific cues.

READING HABITS OF SUBJECTS

At the beginning of the interview, each subject was asked a number of questions about his reading habits and preferences (Appendix 1). These questions were included in the interview partly to put the subject at ease and partly to obtain information about the amount and kinds of reading these students did. The information obtained was interesting and very similar for the two groups.

Amount of Reading

Thirty-three of the forty subjects, seventeen in Group 1 and sixteen in Group 2, said that they read for pleasure in their spare time. Two more in each group replied that they read "a little" or "sometimes", whereas the three other students indicated that they "didn't reach much". Several of the avid readers stressed that they read not only for pleasure, but also "to find things out".

Reading Interests

When asked what kinds of books they liked to read, 38 percent of Group 1 and 24 percent of Group 2 answered mystery stories. Fantasy and science fiction were the second most frequent choices of Group 1 (25%), whereas the same number of Group 2 students chose humorous stories as chose mystery stories. The percentage of each group preferring particular types of stories is shown in Table 3.

Sixteen students in Group 1 and fourteen students in Group 2 were currently reading a book and all but one student could recall the title of the book he was presently reading or of the one he had most recently finished. The titles generally matched the previously expressed preferences for types of stories with one notable exception: A boy in Group 2 who said he preferred comical books was reading Jaws II!

Many students were reading the Hardy Boys and Nancy Drew mysteries, as well as the Encyclopedia Brown, Danny Dunn, and Great Brain books, but there were several examples that illustrated that this group of students had wide and rich reading experience. In Group 1, the boy who preferred World War II stories was reading Dr. No, Midway and The Evil

TABLE 3

READING PREFERENCES OF SUBJECTS

Type of Story	Percentage Preferring Group 1	Group 2	Total
Mystery	38	24	31
Fantasy/Science Fiction	25	14	20
Humorous	4	24	13
Realistic Stories (e.g. those of Judy Blume)	8	19	13
Adventure/Action/Sports	8	14	11
Other (biography, war stories, animal stories science)	17	5	12

That Men Do. Another boy from this group was reading Lord of the Rings and The Screwtape Letters. Several students mentioned that they like to have more than one book "on the go" at a time. Still another Group 1 boy was reading The Odyssey (an edition for young people) and a mild-mannered girl was reading The Brinks Job. In addition to the Jaws II reader in Group 2, a boy was reading Future Shock and a girl had just finished a book on avalanches.

Source of Books

The sources of books being read or just finished were interesting as well, and are shown in Table 4.

The fact that such a high percentage of books were owned personally by the students may indicate that the families of these students encourage them to read and can afford to buy books. It may also reflect the success of school book clubs which many students mentioned. The responses indicate good use of the school libraries, which were cheerful and well-stocked rooms in all five schools. Low public library usage may reflect the fact that all five schools were far from the main library and not within easy walking distance of a branch library. However, the majority of the students (Group 1 - 19, Group 2 - 14) had public library cards.

Reading of Comics

The final question asked about reading interests concerned comics. These students, who, as can be seen from their previous responses, have well-developed reading interests, were also avid comic-book readers.

TABLE 4

SOURCES OF BOOKS BEING READ OR RECENTLY FINISHED

Source of Book	Percentage of Choices Group 1	Group 2	Total
School Library	50	35	43
Personally Owned	20	53	35
Public Library	10	12	11
Other (borrowed from friends, teacher or from parents' friends	20	0	11

Eighteen students in each group claimed to read comic books quite often. In the genre, Archie was the runaway favorite with 50 percent of both groups preferring this comic. Other favorites mentioned by 12 or 14 percent of the students were Richie Rich, Peanuts, the Walt Disney group (Donald Duck, Bugs Bunny), and the super-hero group (Spider Man, Superman).

The same number of students (36) said that they read the comics in the daily or weekly paper. There are two daily papers in Edmonton so the list of favorites is long and varied. The most preferred, mentioned by 33 percent of the total group, was Peanuts. The only other comic strips receiving more than two mentions were Hi and Lois and Marmaduke. The discrepancy between the preference for Archie in comic book form and Peanuts in the newspaper comics was somewhat surprising, as Archie is also a newspaper comic in one daily paper. Perhaps the students associated Archie with the longer format, or possibly the situations in this comic are suited to longer presentation, whereas Peanuts is better suited to presentation in four or five frames.

Summary

Overall, the information on the subjects indicated that these students were alert, aware readers who experience a wide range of written discourse, made independent choices about their own reading, and were thereby developing individual tastes in their personal reading.

Their preference for the Peanuts comic strip helps to explain why many students were sensitive to the selection "Suppertime" as a literary whole and why they were able to make use of their literary-pragmatic knowledge when reading this selection. Knowledge of appropriate situational language use is closely bound up with knowledge of character

traits, knowledge of modes of interaction, and knowledge of literary form. It is difficult to separate these kinds of knowledge, all of which the reader absorbs as he becomes familiar with a literary context.

The fondness for mystery and humor, both of which were seen by students in "From Out of the Blue", helps to explain why this selection was preferred by most students and why they, once again, were quite receptive to the literary devices of the author. These students have wide literary tastes and experience and there is room to speculate, given the results of this study, whether or not all of their knowledge is being brought to bear on the reading task.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, the conclusions of the study, and the implications of the results for understanding the reading process, for teaching, and for further research.

SUMMARY

The reader's "theory of the world in his head" (Smith, 1975) affects the meaning he constructs from written texts. An important part of this prior information which the reader must use if he is to understand imaginative literature is his knowledge of pragmatics. Pragmatic knowledge, the largely implicit grasp of the rules and conventions governing language use in specific situations, is acquired by native speakers at an early age, yet there is little empirical evidence of students' use of pragmatic knowledge in constructing meaning from imaginative literary text. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate whether or not grade five students made use of their knowledge of how language is used for specific purposes in actual situations in order to construct meaning when they read. This study was limited to an investigation of the use of pragmatic knowledge in selected reading tasks: inferences about the author's intention, recognition of incongruity, and recognition of the basis of language incongruity as demonstrated by the ability to remove a given incongruity. The four specific examples of incongruity involved 1) inappropriate conditions for questioning, 2) irrelevant conversational contributions, 3) impolite conversation,

and 4) inappropriate register.

The student sample consisted of twenty good and twenty excellent grade five readers chosen from five Edmonton Separate Elementary Schools. Subjects read three previously unseen stimulus selections chosen from two grade five reading texts recommended by the Alberta Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide.

Students were interviewed individually by the investigator and silently read the selections in a predetermined order which had been assigned to ensure equal use of all six possible orders of presentation. Following the reading of each selection, the student responded orally to a number of open-ended and probe questions posed by the investigator. All interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed by the investigator.

The students' responses were assigned categories arising from the data and these categories were used in two kinds of analysis. Chi-square analyses were used to investigate possible relationships between membership in the group of excellent or good readers and giving a particular response to any question about each of the three selections. Qualitative analysis of the responses were also performed to determine what use of pragmatic knowledge was reflected in the responses.

CONCLUSIONS

Question 1

> What, if any, inferences do grade five readers make about the intentions of the author?

These students did not make extended abstract level (Biggs, 1978) inferences about author's intention, that is, they did not consider all

the elements of a selection as well as external principles of language use in order to produce a coherent, comprehensive statement of the author's intention. This type of performance has possibly led in the past to the conclusion that students of this age cannot infer author's thematic intention. Yet it would be quite wrong to conclude that these students are incapable of inferring author's intention, and for this reason, to refrain from discussing the topic with them. Although, consistent with Beach's (1979) findings, the majority of the responses to the question about author's intention were restatements of events, there were a good many responses that approached a true expression of author's intention. These near-intentional responses were of the type Biggs (1978) labels unistructural and multistructural. Students took into account only one element or perhaps several elements of the selection and generalized on the basis of these without considering their relationship to the rest of the selection. This type of response should be considered as a "step in the right direction" and a base from which students can progress.

The type of response varied across selections. This fact, considered with the responses to the other questions, indicates that these students are sensitive to the techniques and devices used by authors to achieve their purpose. Use of this special kind of pragmatic information led students to "expect" some kind of message or "lesson" in the fable-like form of Selection 1.

Because responses were influenced not only by the selection and by the focus on a limited number of elements, but also by the individual student's experience of life and literature, responses varied greatly within the groups, one student inferring one aspect of the author's

intention, and others inferring different aspects.

Question 2

> Do grade five readers recognize situationally incongruent language when it occurs in written discourse?

These students did recognize incongruent language use as strange or funny within the context created by the literary selection. In McGhee's (1971a & b) study of humor, younger children were more successful in recognizing humor that arose from violation of physical norms, but in this study students did not uniformly identify this presumably more easily recognized type of incongruity, although there were instances of physical incongruity in each selection. Rather, students once again appeared to be sensitive to the author's devices, identifying the major type of incongruity used by the author.

There were some language incongruities, such as the example of inappropriate register in Selection 3, the syntactic repetition of words in Selection 1, and the phonemic violations in Selection 2, which were almost totally overlooked. This neglect might be due to the open-ended nature of the question. Failure to mention the incongruity need not indicate failure to recognize it, as many students were able to correct incongruities when asked directly to do so even though they had not previously identified them.

The attempt to investigate the cues that students used to identify incongruity was not entirely successful, partly because the question used for the purpose was inadequate. It may be, however, that broad, general contexts, rather than specific cues, are used by students as they apply their pragmatic knowledge. This was suggested by their

acceptance of Selection 3, which involved Snoopy and Charlie Brown, as a context sufficient in itself with its own set of conventions of normalacy. Within this particular literary context it is not unusual for a dog to have human thoughts and very few students identified incongruities that involved Snoopy acting in an "undoglike" way. There were students, on the other hand, who noted that Snoopy's behavior was inconsistent with the behavior they had come to expect of Snoopy from their previous literary encounters with him. Because Peanuts was the favorite comic strip of over 30 percent of the total group, many students had developed pragmatic knowledge of this particular literary context and thus were able to use all aspects of the knowledge in constructing meaning.

Generally, the responses indicated that some, but certainly not all, students were sensitive to congruent language use, especially if it was a device the author used for effect in the selection. A broad, integrated view of the context seemed to be required to adequately indentify language incongruities. Some types of incongruity were more difficult than others to recognize, a conclusion which was borne out by the results in the next question.

Question 3

> Do grade five readers recognize the basis for the language incongruity as demonstrated by their ability to change the language to eliminate the incongruity?

Not all of these students recognized the basis for language incongruity and recognition varied with the type of incongruity. Recognition and elimination of irrelevant conversational contributions, which are violations of Grice's Maxim of Quality, was the easiest task, being successfully completed by 85 percent of the total group. Even

though few students freely identified inappropriate register as funny or strange, 62 percent of the total group adequately corrected this violation of Grice's Maxim of Manner when asked a probe question. Only 55 percent correctly remedied a second violation of the Maxim of Manner which involved politeness. The most difficult incongruity for these students to correct was the one involving inappropriate conditions for the speech act of questioning, adequately corrected by only 39 percent of the group. The reason for this poor performance may be that students do not automatically transfer their pragmatic knowledge to situations they meet in print. This tentative conclusion is supported by the fact that all students who did not adequately correct the appropriateness conditions for the "why" question, recognized that a "why" question put to them directly by the investigator was inappropriate. One other characteristic of the performance of many students which had an influence on the correction of incongruity was a hesitancy to put forward a whole new response as opposed to simply answering a question.

Incorrect changes could be linked in almost all cases to focusing on one aspect of the language event rather than on the whole event in its context. Selecting one or two elements and failing to relate them to others is typical of unistructural or multistructral responses (Biggs, 1978). This same type of response was observed in the partially-adequate inferences about author's intention. The fact that selecting a single cue can lead to inappropriate changes supports the suggestion that searching for specific cues to incongruity is futile. What is important are the interrelationships.

Question 4

> Is there any relationship between performance on the three preceding tasks and membership in the group of either excellent or good readers?

There was no signficiant relationships between any type of response and membership in the group of excellent or good readers. There was great variation within both groups as each student answered out of his own experience of language and literature. Although the relationship was not significant as assessed by the chi-square test, excellent readers consistently gave more high-level intentional responses to the question concerning author's intention (Figure 2), and they adequately removed all types of language incongruity more often than did good readers (Figure 4).

Two relationships that approached significance at the .05 level, but were not directly related to the questions asked by this study, were those between group membership and reading time for Selection 1 and 2. In light of the lack of significant relationship between group membership and other types of response, the effect of reading speed on test scores and the relationship between reading speed and other reading behaviors must be considered.

Summary of Conclusions

The answers to the research questions provided information on how these grade five students used their pragmatic knowledge to construct meaning at two levels: first at the broad level of author's intended meaning for the whole selection and secondly at the more immediate level of appropriate situational use of language by characters within imaginative literature. The findings suggested that there were areas of

similarity between the uses of pragmatic knowledge at these two levels and led to the conclusion that these students are capable of using this kind of knowledge, but that this use is by no means automatic, nor is it guaranteeed by high scores on traditional reading measures. The most common shortcoming contributing to less than adequate performance was selection of a limited number of elements in a situation, and subsequent failure to relate these to other relevant elements. Students need assistance in sharing their divergent approaches to a question and thereby constructing more comprehensive meanings. They also require help in seeing the connection between actual experience, which they understand, and reflected experiences in literary texts, which they must recreate. Many students demonstrated behaviors that indicated they can benefit from and be receptive to this kind of teaching, perhaps in the form of simulation and drama. They accepted literary context as viable context within which specific events are given meaning, while at the same time they demonstrated a reluctance to generate totally new situational responses. Perhaps the most important conclusion was that the performance of these students indicated that they are "on their way" to fully employing their pragmatic knowledge in a reading situation. Some help in applying this knowledge is essential, however, in order that the students get the maximum meaning from imaginative literary texts.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE UNDERSTANDING OF THE READING PROCESS

> It is probable that the skills and processes related to pragmatics could be accounted for in an extension or refinement of any model of reading that is justifiable on other grounds. (Griffin, 1977, p. 127)

The results of this study do not suggest radical changes in the way in which the reading process is viewed. They do suggest, however, that some account must be taken of the role of pragmatic knowledge in the construction of meaning from written text because the subjects in this study were conscious of certain pragmatic conventions as they applied in the context of imaginative literature. Moreover, failure to apply these pragmatic conventions resulted in incomplete comprehension.

There was evidence in the results of this study, for what Griffin (1977) calls a symbiotic relationship between pragmatics and reading: application of pragmatic knowledge is essential for reading comprehension while on the other hand, familiarity with and much reading of various forms of literature, are essential to development of the contextual knowledge needed to use the pragmatic conventions. This study's results further indicated that there is a multifaceted interrelationship between pragmatic knowledge, type of discourse, text structure, and other elements of the reading process unspecified in this study.

Finally the results implied that complex understandings, such as author's intention, should not be considered to be acquired or not acquired at any particular point in a student's reading career. Rather these understandings should be considered to exist in a developing state capable of expansion at any time after the individual has become conscious of written text.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

The results of this study hold certain implications for the teaching of language arts.

In light of the fact that students do need to apply pragmatic knowledge in order to construct meaning from imaginative literature, the teacher source books that accompany the basal readers should include suggestions for facilitating the transfer of this implicit knowledge to an explicit application in reading imaginative literature. As part of the acknowledgement of the need to apply knowledge of situational language use, the teacher source books, and teachers themselves, should begin to consider the conversations recorded in the basal readers as more than simply collections of words to be read. They should be seen, and must be understood by the students, as attempts by speakers to accomplish specific things at some given time and place.

This study identified a difficulty in applying knowledge which exists in a face-to-face encounter to situations in imaginative literature. One way for teachers to facilitate this kind of transfer might be to use drama involving simulation of similar situations prior to reading about them. Paris and Lindauer (1976) found that "acting out" improved young children's understanding of inferred meaning of single sentences, and Moffett (1969) has claimed for some time that drama, being at a lower level of abstraction than much printed text, is the most reasonable level of discourse with which to begin. The results of this study, then, support the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide in its emphasis on integration of the language arts and on beginning new knowledge acquisition with active learning, moving later to the written mode.

Teachers should make use of small group discussions to allow students to present their own ideas on the purpose and other aspects of selections that they read. Because students seem to grasp different

aspects of complete meaning as explained in the conclusions of this study, they should be given the opportunity to share ideas, incorporate the ideas of others with their own, and then develop the modified idea. This would help students along the path to full comprehension. This activity might also enhance students' ability and willingness to compose and express their ideas. Such small group exchanges are another feature of Moffett's program (1973).

Many types of reading material, in addition to those found in school texts, should be used in the classroom. Different types of texts are used for different purposes and, if students are to become familiar with these textual contexts they must experience them. Students responses to the Peanuts material indicated that familiarity with particular texts did lead to increased use of pragmatic knowledge in meaning construction. The writing that the student himself does for different purposes and for different audiences also helps to develop the realization that users of written language have specific intentions in their use of language. This is a task advocated by the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide. Such activity, if adequately explained to the students, is of benefit not only to students' writing, but also to their reading comprehension, although this fact is not clearly stated in the Guide.

The preceding implications for teaching are directed towards bringing the students' implicit knowledge of situational language use to the explicit level so that it can be applied in written text, or to exposing students to written contexts so that they have the opportunity to develop awareness of how language is used in these particular situations.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The result of this exploratory study suggested several areas for additional research.

Because this study considered only the recognition of and ability to correct violations of certain language conventions in imaginative literary texts, there is a need to investigate the actual inferences that students make on the basis of these recognitions. This type of investigation would require specific probe questions about language events in selections because this study confirmed that students have understanding that is not tapped by open-ended questions.

The above type of study, as well as studies similar to the present exploratory one, need to be carried out with both younger and older students to see whether developmental trends exist. Because this study dealt only with above average readers, there is also a need to investigate the nature of the interaction between text and the pragmatic knowledge of students scoring lower on standardized tests.

The field of pragmatics is so vast that there are many more specific aspects of it which need to be explored as they relate to reading comprehension. As a first step, perhaps the recommended texts, especially at beginning levels, should be examined to determine just what type of pragmatic knowledge is required to adequately construct meaning from them.

In this study, the effect of selection, even though all were examples of imaginative literature, was very powerful. There is a need, therefore, to further investigate how variations in texts, such as type of discourse, or even small variations in technique, such as the use of

direct or indirect conversation, interact with the students' use of their pragmatic knowledge.

In light of the finding that students may recognize a language violation in face-to-face conversation but not in print, there is a need for experimental studies investigating whether or not preparatory teaching through drama or other creative media, enhances comprehension of text.

Finally, although this study was inclusive on the question of cues to language incongruity, study should continue into where in the total reading process use of pragmatic knowledge fits, into how it is called into play, and into the nature of that knowledge.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The findings of this study indicate that grade five students can use their knowledge of situational language in order to infer author's intention and to recognize incongruent language use in imaginative literature. Even good and excellent readers, however, are only partially successful at these tasks. Performance varies with the type of selection being read and with the type of language convention involved. Because there is such variation among students in the degree to which and the level at which pragmatic knowledge is used, students need help from teachers and from each other in order to develop the maximum use of pragmatic knowledge in comprehending written text.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

GENERAL STATEMENT

I am Mrs. McGregor, a teacher from Hanna, Alberta. Do you know where Hanna is? (If not explain that it is near Drumheller, etc.). I have been going to university this year and I am doing a study of grade 5 readers. I'm trying to find out how people understand what they read. I would like to know what ideas you use to make sense out of the stories, poems, and plays that you read. I'm going to give you some selections to read. They are from grade five books, but not from the books that you read in your class. After you read each selection to yourself, we will talk about them. There are no good or bad, no right or wrong answers. I'm only interested in how you think about what you read, so please tell me as much as you can. Do you have any questions to ask me?

READING INTERESTS

First I would like to know a little about what you like to read. (Administer the questions on student sheet).

STUDENT RECORD SHEET

SCHOOL _____ GROUP I.D. _____ SEX _____

SUBJECT _____ AGE _____

VOCABULARY SCORE _____ COMPREHENSION SCORE _____

TIME: SELECTION 1 _____ SELECTION 2 _____ SELECTION 3 _____

ORDER:

READING INTERESTS

1. Do you read for pleasure in your spare time? _____
2. What kinds of books do you like to read? _____
3. Are you reading a book now? _____
4. What is the title? _____
5. Is it from the school or public library? _____
6. Do you have your own public library card? _____
7. Do you own books? _____
8. What kind of books do you own? _____
9. Do you read comic books? _____ What is your favorite? _____
10. Do you read the comics in the newspaper? _____
    What is your favorite? _____

OBSERVATIONS OF SILENT READING

SELECTION PREFERRED

SELECTION 1

THE OLD MAN WHO SAID "WHY" p. 97.

INTRODUCTION

This is a story about a group of beings who have a problem that is very difficult to solve.

A. WHAT DO YOU THINK WERE THE MAIN THINGS THE AUTHOR INTENDED YOU TO UNDERSTAND FROM THIS STORY?

B. DID YOU THINK ANY PARTS OF THIS SELECTION WERE STRANGE OR FUNNY IN ANY WAY? WHY?

B.1 (if non-language incongruity given)
DID YOU THINK ANY OF THE THINGS THAT ANYONE SAID IN THIS STORY WERE STRANGE OR FUNNY IN ANY WAY? WHY?

B.2 (if adequate answer is not given)
HOW OLD ARE YOU? WHY? WHY IS MY ANSWER STRANGE? ARE THE OLD MAN'S ANSWERS STRANGE IN THIS WAY?

C. FIND THE PART OF THE STORY ON PAGE 105. THE OLD MAN IS ANSWERING WITH WHY MANY TIMES. CHANGE THIS PART OF THE STORY SO IT IS NO LONGER FUNNY OR STRANGE.

D. IN THIS STORY, WHAT TOLD YOU THE STORY WAS NOT ABOUT REALISTIC, EVERYDAY HAPPENINGS?

SELECTION 2

FROM OUT OF THE BLUE p. 199.

INTRODUCTION

This one-act play begins with a press conference. Do you know what a press conference is? Press conferences are usually given by important persons. Reporters are called in to ask questions. They are often held when some important event has taken place and is to be reported to the public. The play begins with a list of the characters.

A. WHAT DO YOU THINK WERE THE MAIN THINGS THE AUTHOR INTENDED YOU TO UNDERSTAND FROM THIS PLAY?

B. DID YOU THINK ANY PARTS OF THIS SELECTION WERE FUNNY OR STRANGE IN ANY WAY? WHY?

B.1 (if non-language incongruity given)
DID YOU THINK ANYTHING THAT ANYONE SAID IN THIS PLAY WAS STRANGE OR FUNNY IN ANY WAY? WHY?

C. FIND THE PART OF THE PLAY ON PAGE 208. NOREEN IS SPEAKING. CAN YOU CHANGE THIS PART SO THAT IT IS NO LONGER FUNNY OR STRANGE.

C. FIND THE PART OF THE PLAY ON PAGE 210. THE MINISTER IS SPEAKING. CHANGE THIS PART SO THAT IT IS NO LONGER FUNNY OR STRANGE.

D. IN THIS PLAY, WHAT TOLD YOU THAT THE STORY WAS NOT ABOUT REALISTIC, EVERYDAY HAPPENINGS?

SELECTION 3

SUPPERTIME p. 278.

INTRODUCTION

This is a song from the musical play "You're A Good Man, Charlie Brown". Have you seen that play? The song is sung by the comic strip characters Charlie Brown (CB) and the dog Snoopy.

A. WHAT DO YOU THINK WERE THE MAIN THINGS THE AUTHOR INTENDED YOU TO UNDERSTAND FROM THIS SONG?

B. DID YOU THINK ANY PARTS OF THIS SONG WERE FUNNY OR STRANGE IN ANY WAY? WHY?

B.1 (if non-language incongruity given)
DID YOU THINK ANYTHING THAT ANYONE SAID IN THIS SONG WAS FUNNY OR STRANGE IN ANY WAY? WHY?

C. FIND THE FIRST TIME SNOOPY TALKS. CHANGE THIS PART SO THAT IT IS NO LONGER FUNNY OR STRANGE.

D. IN THIS SONG, WHAT TOLD YOU THAT THE STORY WAS NOT ABOUT REALISTIC EVERYDAY HAPPENINGS?

APPENDIX 2

SELECTIONS USED IN THE STUDY

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Selections 1, 2 and 3 have been omitted for copyright reasons from Myrna McGregor's thesis "An Exploratory Study of grade V Students' Use of Pragmatic Information in the Construction of Meaning from Imaginative Literary Text". The sources of these selections may be found on page 41 of the thesis.

APPENDIX 3

DATA ON SUBJECTS

GROUP 1

Student Number	Sex	Age	Vocabulary Score	Comprehension Score
1	M	11-1	95	95
2	F	10-8	98	95
3	F	10-8	95	95
4	M	10-10	95	95
5	M	10-5	90	95
6	F	10-6	91	95
7	M	10-6	99	98
8	M	10-8	90	97
9	M	10-9	96	97
10	F	10-11	82	86
11	F	10-10	97	82
12	M	10-6	97	99
13	M	10-1	95	90
14	M	11-0	80	95
15	M	11-2	95	95
16	M	10-10	100	95
17	F	10-10	90	90
18	F	10-5	95	90
19	F	11-2	70	85
20	M	10-5	90	95

GROUP 2

Student Number	Sex	Age	Vocabulary Score	Comprehension Score
1	M	10-3	80	60
2	F	10-10	80	65
3	M	10-6	60	55
4	M	10-3	65	65
5	F	10-8	75	73
6	F	10-6	64	56
7	M	10-3	75	61
8	M	10-7	94	73
9	F	11-4	50	69
10	F	10-4	64	76
11	M	10-7	97	63
12	F	10-5	91	67
13	M	10-3	50	69
14	M	11-0	91	67
15	F	10-9	50	50
16	F	10-9	80	65
17	F	10-5	60	70
18	M	10-8	65	70
19	F	10-11	50	60
20	M	10-9	90	70

APPENDIX 4

CHI-SQUARE TABLES

TABLE 5

GROUP BY READING TIME SELECTION 1:
FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		1-616 sec.	617 sec.+	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	15	5	20
	%	75.0	25.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	8	12	20
	%	40.0	60.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	23	17	40
	%	57.5	42.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 3.68286, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.0550

TABLE 6

GROUP BY READING TIME SELECTION 2:
FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		1-1417 sec.	1418 sec.+	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	15	5	20
	%	75.0	25.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	8	12	20
	%	40.0	60.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	23	17	40
	%	57.5	42.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 3.68286, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.0550

TABLE 7

GROUP BY READING TIME SELECTION 3:
FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		1-141 sec.	142 sec.+	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	14	6	20
	%	70.0	30.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	10	10	20
	%	50.0	50.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	24	16	40
	%	60.0	40.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.93750, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.3329

TABLE 8

GROUP BY INTENTIONAL TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	11	9	0	20
	%	55.0	45.0	0.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	13	6	1	20
	%	65.0	30.0	5.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	24	15	1	40
	%	60.0	37.5	2.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 1.76667, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.4134

TABLE 9

GROUP BY TECHNIQUE TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	17	3	0	20
	%	85.0	15.0	0.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	15	2	3	20
	%	75.0	10.0	15.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	32	5	3	40
	%	80.0	12.5	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 3.32500, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.1897

TABLE 10

GROUP BY SETTING/CHARACTER TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	17	2	1	20
	%	85.0	10.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	17	3	0	20
	%	85.0	15.0	0.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	34	5	1	40
	%	85.0	12.5	2.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 1.20000, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.5488

TABLE 11

GROUP BY RESTATEMENT TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	12	5	3	20
	%	60.0	25.0	15.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	13	6	1	20
	%	65.0	30.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	25	11	4	40
	%	62.5	27.5	10.0	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 1.13091, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.5681

TABLE 12

GROUP BY INTENTION TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	11	9	20
	%	55.0	45.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	12	8	20
	%	60.0	40.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	23	17	40
	%	57.5	42.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.0, d.f = 1 Sig. = 1.0000

TABLE 13

GROUP BY TECHNIQUE TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S STATEMENT
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	14	3	3	20
	%	70.0	15.0	15.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	15	3	2	20
	%	75.0	15.0	10.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	29	6	5	40
	%	72.5	15.0	12.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 0.23448, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.8894

TABLE 14

GROUP BY SETTING/CHARACTER TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	16	1	3	20
	%	80.0	5.0	15.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	17	3	0	20
	%	85.0	15.0	0.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	33	4	3	40
	%	82.5	10.0	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 4.03030, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.1333

TABLE 15

GROUP BY RESTATEMENT TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	more than 2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	16	2	0	2	20
	%	80.0	10.0	0.0	10.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	14	1	3	2	20
	%	70.0	5.0	15.0	10.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	30	3	3	4	40
	%	75.0	7.5	7.5	10.0	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 0.46667, d.f. = 3 Sig. = 0.3251

TABLE 16

GROUP BY INTENTION TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	16	4	20
	%	80.0	20.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	18	2	20
	%	90.0	10.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	34	6	40
	%	85.0	15.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-Square = 0.19608, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.6579

TABLE 17

GROUP BY TECHNIQUE TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	19	1	20
	%	95.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	15	5	20
	%	75.0	25.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	34	6	40
	%	85.0	15.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 1.76471, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.1840

TABLE 18

GROUP BY SETTING/CHARACTER TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	10	10	20
	%	50.0	50.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	13	7	20
	%	65.0	35.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	23	17	40
	%	57.5	42.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-Square = 0.40921, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.5224

TABLE 19

GROUP BY RESTATEMENT TYPE RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	more than 2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	9	6	3	2	20
	%	45.0	30.0	15.0	10.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	13	3	3	1	20
	%	65.0	15.0	15.0	5.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	22	9	6	3	40
	%	55.0	22.5	15.0	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 2.06060, d.f. = 3 Sig. = 0.5599

TABLE 20

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	5	10	5	20
	%	25.0	50.0	25.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	3	12	5	20
	%	15.0	60.0	25.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	8	22	10	40
	%	20.0	55.0	25.0	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 0.68182, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.7111

TABLE 21

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIAL CONTEXTUAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	19	1	20
	%	95.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	19	1	20
	%	95.0	5.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	38	2	40
	%	95.0	5.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.52632, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.4682

TABLE 22

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF CONVERSATIONAL PRINCIPLE INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	18	1	1	20
	%	90.0	5.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	15	3	2	20
	%	75.0	15.0	10.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	33	4	3	40
	%	82.5	10.0	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 1.60606, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.4480

TABLE 23

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SYNTACTIC-PHONEMIC INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	2 responses	more than 2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	18	1	1	20
	%	90.0	5.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	20	0	0	20
	%	100.0	0.0	0.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	38	1	1	40
	%	95.0	2.5	2.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 2.10526, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.3490

TABLE 24

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	15	1		16
	%	93.8	6.3		45.7
GOOD READERS	n	13	6		19
	%	68.4	31.6		54.3
TOTAL	n	28	7	5M	35
	%	80.0	20.0	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 2.07956, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.1493
Number of Missing Observations = 5

TABLE 25

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIAL-CONTEXTUAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	13	3		16
	%	81.3	18.8		45.7
GOOD READERS	n	17	2		19
	%	89.5	10.5		54.3
TOTAL	n	30	5	5M	35
	%	85.7	14.3	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.04317, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.8354
Number of Missing Observations = 5

TABLE 26

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF CONVERSATIONAL PRINCIPLE INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	5	9	2		16
	%	31.3	56.3	12.5		45.7
GOOD READERS	n	7	9	5		19
	%	36.8	47.4	15.8		54.3
TOTAL	n	12	18	5	5M	35
	%	34.3	51.4	14.3	0.0	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 0.27823, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.8701
Number of Missing Observations = 5

TABLE 27

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SYNTACTIC-PHONEMIC INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	13	3		16
	%	81.3	18.8		45.7
GOOD READERS	n	18	1		19
	%	94.7	5.3		54.3
TOTAL	n	31	4	5M	35
	%	88.6	11.4	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.51275, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.4739
Number of Missing Observations = 5

TABLE 28

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	18	0		18
	%	100.0	0.0		48.6
GOOD READERS	n	16	3		19
	%	84.2	15.8		51.4
TOTAL	n	34	3	3M	37
	%	91.9	8.1	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 1.33669, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.2476
Number of Missing Observations = 3

TABLE 29

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIAL-CONTEXTUAL INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	13	5		18
	%	72.2	27.8		48.6
GOOD READERS	n	9	10		19
	%	47.4	52.6		51.4
TOTAL	n	22	15	3M	37
	%	59.5	40.5	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 1.44979, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.2286
Number of Missing Observations = 3

TABLE 30

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF CONVERSATIONAL PRINCIPLE INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	16	2		18
	%	88.9	11.1		48.6
GOOD READERS	n	19	0		19
	%	100.0	0.0		51.4
TOTAL	n	35	2	3M	37
	%	94.6	5.4	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.58769, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.4433
Number of Missing Observations = 3

TABLE 31

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SYNTACTIC-PHONEMIC INCONGRUITY
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	6	12		18
	%	33.3	66.7		48.6
GOOD READERS	n	7	12		19
	%	36.8	63.2		51.4
TOTAL	n	13	24	3M	37
	%	35.1	64.9	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.01465, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.9037
Number of Missing Observations = 3

TABLE 32

GROUP BY REMOVAL OF INCONGRUITY (QUESTIONING)
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		Adequate Change	Inadequate Change	Missing Data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	10	10		20
	%	50.0	50.0		52.6
GOOD READERS	n	5	13		18
	%	27.8	72.2		47.4
TOTAL	n	15	23	2M	38
	%	39.5	60.5	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-Square = 1.13847, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.2860
Number of Missing Observations = 2

TABLE 33

GROUP BY REMOVAL OF INCONGRUITY (IRRELEVANT CONVERSATIONAL CONTRIBUTION)
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		Adequate Change	Inadequate Change	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	19	1	20
	%	95.0	5.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	15	5	20
	%	75.0	25.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	34	6	40
	%	85.0	15.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 1.76471, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.1840

TABLE 34

GROUP BY REMOVAL OF INCONGRUITY (POLITENESS)
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		Adequate Change	Inadequate Change	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	12	8	20
	%	60.0	40.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	10	10	20
	%	50.0	50.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	22	18	40
	%	55.0	45.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.10101, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.7506

TABLE 35

GROUP BY REMOVAL OF INCONGRUITY (REGISTER)
FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		Adequate Change	Inadequate Change	Missing Data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	13	7		20
	%	65.0	35.0		51.3
GOOD READERS	n	11	8		19
	%	57.9	42.1		48.7
TOTAL	n	24	15	1M	39
	%	61.5	38.5	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.01604, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.8992
Number of Missing Observations = 1

TABLE 36

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL CUE TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	more than 2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	1	8	7	4	20
	%	5.0	40.0	35.0	20.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	0	12	7	1	20
	%	0.0	60.0	35.0	5.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	1	20	14	5	40
	%	2.5	50.0	35.0	12.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 3.60000, d.f. = 3 Sig. = 0.3080

TABLE 37

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIO-LINGUISTIC CUE TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 1: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	18	2	20
	%	90.0	10.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	19	1	20
	%	95.0	5.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	37	3	40
	%	92.5	7.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.0, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 1.0000

TABLE 38

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL CUE TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	7	13	0	20
	%	35.0	65.0	0.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	7	10	3	20
	%	35.0	50.0	15.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	14	23	3	40
	%	35.0	57.5	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 3.39130, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.1835

TABLE 39

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIO-LINGUISTIC CUE TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 2: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	12	8	0	20
	%	60.0	40.0	0.0	50.0
GOOD READERS	n	11	6	3	20
	%	55.0	30.0	15.0	50.0
TOTAL	n	23	14	3	40
	%	57.5	35.0	7.5	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 3.32919, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.1893

TABLE 40

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF PHYSICAL CUES TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	7	12		19
	%	36.8	63.2		50.0
GOOD READERS	n	11	8		19
	%	57.9	42.1		50.0
TOTAL	n	18	20	2M	38
	%	47.4	52.6	0.0	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.95000, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.3297
Number of Missing Observations = 2

TABLE 41

GROUP BY IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIO-LINGUISTIC CUE TO LACK OF REALISM
SELECTION 3: FREQUENCY FOR A CHI-SQUARE TEST

		no response	1 response	2 responses	missing data	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	8	11	0		19
	%	42.1	57.9	0.0		50.0
GOOD READERS	n	6	12	1		19
	%	31.06	63.2	5.3		50.0
TOTAL	n	14	23	1	2M	38
	%	36.8	60.5	2.6	0.0	100.0

Raw Chi-square = 1.32919, d.f. = 2 Sig. = 0.5145
Number of Missing Observations = 2

TABLE 42

GROUP BY SEX FOR INTENTIONAL RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 1

		Girls	Boys	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	3	6	9
	%	33.0	66.7	60.0
GOOD READERS	n	3	3	6
	%	50.0	50.0	40.0
TOTAL	n	6	9	15
	%	40.0	60.0	100.0

Fisher's Exact Test = 0.62238 Sig. = 0.45455

TABLE 43

GROUP BY SEX FOR INTENTIONAL RESPONSE TO AUTHOR'S INTENTION
SELECTION 2

		Girls	Boys	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	3	6	9
	%	33.0	66.7	60.0
GOOD READERS	n	5	3	8
	%	62.5	37.5	47.1
TOTAL	n	8	9	17
	%	47.1	52.9	100.0

Fisher's Exact Test = 0.34694 Sig. = 0.23797

TABLE 44

GROUP BY SEX FOR ADEQUATE REMOVAL OF INCONGRUITY (POLITENESS)

		Girls	Boys	Total
EXCELLENT READERS	n	4	8	12
	%	33.3	66.7	54.5
GOOD READERS	n	6	4	10
	%	60.0	40.0	45.5
TOTAL	n	10	12	22
	%	45.5	54.5	100.0

Corrected Chi-square = 0.67375, d.f. = 1 Sig. = 0.4117

APPENDIX 5

SAMPLE STUDENT PROTOCOLS

THE PROTOCOLS OF ONE BOY AND ONE GIRL FROM EACH GROUP ARE INCLUDED

STUDENT RECORD SHEET

GROUP I.D. 1-7 SEX M AGE 10-6

VOCABULARY SCORE 99 COMPREHENSION SCORE 98

TIME: SELECTION 1 254 SELECTION 2 720 SELECTION 3 67

ORDER: 2, 1, 3

READING INTERESTS:

1. Do you read for pleasure in your spare time? Yes
2. What kinds of books do you like to read? mystery, fiction/history W.W.II
3. Are you reading a book now? Yes
4. What is the title? Dr. Who/Mid-Way/Evil That Men Do
5. Is it from the school or public library? Public
6. Do you have your own public library card? Yes
7. Do you own books? Alfred Hitchcock/Hardy Boys
8. What kind of books do you own? _____
9. Do you read comic books? Yes What is your favorite? D.C. Green Hornet Superman
10. Do you read the comics in the newspaper? Yes
    What is your favorite? Hagar Horrible, Andy Capp, Zeus

OBSERVATIONS OF SILENT READING

2 taps fingers on chair arm - seem a bit impatient
taps hands on chair arm - seem a bit impatient
I think he found these attempts at humor a bit juvenile

1 showed signs of humor - slight chuckle

3

SELECTION PREFERRED

2 it was most interesting

SELECTION 1

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this story?

STUDENT:
People can bug you by saying one word.

INVESTIGATOR:
What happened to the old man?

STUDENT:
He fell to the earth and he got younger and younger and when he hit the ground he wasn't even born yet.

INVESTIGATOR:
Do you think the author was trying to get some kind of message across to us there?

STUDENT:
Yes - You can take a different start. Say you have done something for a couple of years and you find out for some reason you can't do it anymore you can go back and start again.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
All the people laid down their troubles.

INVESTIGATOR:
Are the old man's answers strange in this way?

STUDENT:
He didn't say anything else only, why, why?

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the story on page 105. The old man is answering with why many times. Change this part of the story so it is no longer funny or strange?

STUDENT:
Well because I've got ears, because I've been hearing things - that wouldn't be so strange.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this story, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
The man who said why. Everyone says why but why should one man be singled out.

SELECTION 2

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this play?

STUDENT:
Well he doesn't want everybody to know the truth how something might be too bad to know. If everybody knew the truth there might be another war or something.

INVESTIGATOR:
Do you think any parts of this selection were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
No not very.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think anything that anyone said in this play was strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Probably about the coffee.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why was that strange.

STUDENT:
Well - I've never heard it said before about 3 week-old tar.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 208. Noreen is speaking. Can you change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Supposed to be a space conference about a strange space ship and she's trying to get some recipes.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it then?

STUDENT:
Uh. At what time was it about?

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the page on page 210. The minister is speaking. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT
Um - 3 week old wine.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this play, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings.

STUDENT:
The names: something like lib which showed that she was independent - and Flash with the camera.

SELECTION 3

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this song?

STUDENT:
Like people like to have supper.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this song were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
They were singing about eating.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the first time that Snoopy talks. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Slack our thirst sounds a little strange.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why?

STUDENT:
I've never heard slack used in that manner.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
Quench our thirst.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this song, what told you that the story was not about realistic everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Cause CB is standing there for a whole minute and dogs usually just start to eat supper.

STUDENT RECORD SHEET

GROUP I.D. 1-17 SEX F AGE 10-10

VOCABULARY SCORE 90 COMPREHENSIVE SCORE 90

TIME: SELECTION 1 541 SELECTION 2 1331 SELECTION 3 136

ORDER: 2, 3, 1

READING INTERESTS

1. Do you read for pleasure in your spare time? some
2. What kinds of books do you like to read? science fiction
3. Are you reading a book now? no
4. What is the title? last-Danny Dunn Boys and Small Space Ship
5. Is it from the school or public library? school
6. Do you have your own public library card? yes
7. Do you own books? yes
8. What kinds of books do you own? no special kind
9. Do you read comic books? yes What is your favorite? Archie
10. Do you read the comics in the newspaper? yes
    What is your favorite? Family Circus

OBSERVATIONS OF SILENT READING

Read silently with no overt signs of humor.

SELECTION PREFERRED

2 Like it was unusual.

SELECTION 1

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this story?

STUDENT:
Well that there was a faerie and everybody always came to him with troubles.

INVESTIGATOR:
Look at the end of the story. What happened to the old man at the end of the story?

STUDENT:
He kept on saying why so he fell down to the earth. He became a middle aged man, a young man and then a child.

INVESTIGATOR:
Do you think the author was trying to tell you something by this?

STUDENT:
No.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
When the faerie was drinking light.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any of the things that anyone said in the story were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
No.

INVESTIGATOR:
How old are you?

STUDENT:
10.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why?

STUDENT:
Laughs.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why did you laugh.

STUDENT:
Well you never hear people say why when you say how old you are.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the story on page 105. The old man is answering with why many times. Change this part of the story so it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
He says why because I've come all the farthest star to see you. He doesn't really have to say why because it tells you up here. That guy doesn't have to say why.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this story, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Well there's not faeries.

SELECTION 2

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this play?

STUDENT:
About the press conference.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you tell me a little bit more. What about the press conference?

STUDENT:
They were talking about that stone and how they found it.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Like that Norman and that hockey game.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you tell me why?

STUDENT:
Everytime they said something like they hope this gets through he said ya cause I want to get to the hockey game.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 208. Noreen is speaking. Can you change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange?

STUDENT:
Ya the stew - you don't talk about stew in the middle of a press conference.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
Like she could say after the press conference is over to tell her about the stew.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 210. The minister is speaking. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Um - ... Well if the minister would just say the coffee - I don't really like the coffee but other people might.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this play, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Well when they said we haven't had this press conference in years or something.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you explain?

STUDENT:
Well because maybe something strange happened a long time ago.

SELECTION 3

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this song?

STUDENT:
Well that Snoopy didn't want to eat his supper and it was always suppertime.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this song were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
When he sang he was spilling it all over.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the first time that Snoopy talks? Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Snoopy never talks and he's kinda singing it.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
Maybe he could just say I don't want any.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this song, what told you that the story was not about realistic everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Oh when he says why can't he eat quietly and calmly like other dogs.

STUDENT RECORD SHEET

GROUP I.D. 2-2 SEX F AGE 10-10

VOCABULARY SCORE 80 COMPREHENSIVE SCORE 65

TIME: SELECTION 1 598 SELECTION 2 1434 SELECTION 3 189

ORDER: 1, 3, 2

READING INTERESTS

1. Do you read for pleasure in your spare time? yes
2. What kinds of books do you like to read? mysteries/funny
3. Are you reading a book now? yes
4. What is the title? The Borrowers Afloat
5. Is it from the school or public library? own
6. Do you have your own public library card? yes
7. Do you own books? yes
8. What kind of books do you own? Nancy Drew - "48"
9. Do you read comic books? yes, a little
   What is your favourite? Archie
10. Do you read the comics in the newspaper? yes
    What is your favourite? Hi and Lois, Blondie

OBSERVATIONS OF SILENT READING

1 Follows with finger
p. 101 - a little snort of laughter

3 mumble reads

2 p. 214 - shows some signs of weariness
with task - wiggles, adjusts hair

SELECTION PREFERRED

2 Because it was funny.

SELECTION 1

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this story?

STUDENT:
About the man always saying why and the people all coming to all tell.

INVESTIGATOR:
What happened to the man?

STUDENT:
He fell from the sky and when he touched the earth he was just going to be born.

INVESTIGATOR:
Do you think the author was trying to tell you anything by that?

STUDENT:
M Hm. That they were in heaven when they did this and the wise old man was (They are trying to tell you something but I don't really know.) Um that he oh, he wasn't I don't know - well it's hard to explain but anyway they're from heaven and the wise old man was probably God or something and he goes to visit the man but it was an angel and he wasn't a very good angel, and always said why so he just wanted to get rid of him so he set him down to earth.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Ya kind of strange. Because he couldn't even hear when the wise man was down from the steeple.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any of the things that anyone said in this story were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Ya. He kept on saying Why, Why, Why, Why. He never said anything else.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why was that peculiar?

STUDENT:
Because usually people don't always say why they usually say other words.

INVESTIGATOR:
How old are you?

STUDENT:
10.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why?

STUDENT:
What?

INVESTIGATOR:
Why are you so puzzled about my asking why.

STUDENT:
I don't know. Nobody's every asked me that before.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the story on page 105. The old man is answering with why many times. Change this part of the story so it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
He wouldn't say why anymore.

INVESTIGATOR:
What would he say?

STUDENT:
Um - Okay - you've heard a great many complaints about me.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this story, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Because of the faerie there there's no such thing as a faerie.

SELECTION 2

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this play?

STUDENT:
The space ship landing and the reporters like gathering around and talking about it.

INVESTIGATOR:
What kind of rock was it?

STUDENT:
A meteor. I don't know what kind.

INVESTIGATOR:
Was there anything special about this kind of rock?

STUDENT:
Ya it was a truth rock they thought it was.

INVESTIGATOR:
What happened to the rock?

STUDENT:
They blasted it back off.

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think the author was trying to tell you here?

STUDENT:
Like....

INVESTIGATOR:
Why was it necessary to blast that truth rock back off into space?

STUDENT:
Cause the news people wanted to communicate with them.

INVESTIGATOR:
Do you think any parts of this selection were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Ya I think some of it was funny because of the truth rock (looked in book). When Noreen, Norman, Brad and Flash altogether said Holy Cow what a story! I've got to get the camera men. They said it all together and it was funny.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 208. Noreen is speaking. Can you change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Yuh she cuts in - its a completely different thing.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
Something about asking about the meteor.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 210. The minister is speaking. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Um He can say well I don't really like your coffee, Mrs. Maple, it tastes really awful. Could say that instead of....

INVESTIGATOR:
In this play, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Um - the space ship falling and the meteor inside it.

SELECTION 3

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this song?

STUDENT:
That it was suppertime and Snoopy was making a big to-do about it.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this song were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Cause dogs can't talk and they wouldn't just talk in the song.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the first time that Snoopy talks. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Behold the brimming bowl of meat and meal, cause it's funny cause I don't know - it doesn't really make sense.

INVESTIGATOR:
Change it so it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Bring me my bowl of meat.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this song, what told you that the story was not about realistic everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
The dog started talking and the dog didn't notice it was suppertime.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why was that strange?

STUDENT:
Because dogs usually jump up and down and try to get it.

STUDENT RECORD SHEET

GROUP I.D. 2-19 SEX M AGE 10-8

VOCABULARY SCORE 65 COMPREHENSIVE SCORE 70

TIME: SELECTION 1 360 SELECTION 2 692 SELECTION 3 100

ORDER: 1, 2, 3

READING INTERESTS

1. Do you read for pleasure in your spare time? yes
2. What kinds of books do you like to read? adventure
3. Are you reading a book now? yes
4. What is the title? Up Periscope
5. Is it from the school or public library? public
6. Do you have your own public library card? yes
7. Do you own books? yes
8. What kind of books do you own? cover/name/adventure/reads back
9. Do you read comic books? yes What is your favourite? Donald Duck
10. Do you read the comics in the newspaper? yes —
    What is your favourite? Zeus

OBSERVATIONS OF SILENT READING

1 Laughter/chuckles

2 Chuckles

SELECTION PREFERRED

2 It sort of had a story sort of politicians didn't tell the truth and it had a funny tone.

SELECTION 1

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this story?

STUDENT:
Well I can't really say. But I'd sorta say it would be a humorous story. Like he was trying to get some kind of a moral to us.

INVESTIGATOR:
All right what would you say that moral was?

STUDENT:
I think that there would be a moral but I can't get an idea of it.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
When they started living on the star. I think it would get overpopulated because once you got born you could live for a million years and not get any older.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any of the things that anyone said in this story were strange or funny in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Ya when the old man was sitting on the steeple he was asking him all these questions and he'd just say why.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why is that strange?

STUDENT:
I think why should be used for different sentences like why are you doing this or why are you doing that.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the story on page 105. The old man is answering with why many times. Change this part of the story so it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Instead of why say how come.

INVESIGATOR:
In this story, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
There's no such thing as faeries.

SELECTION 2

INVESTIGATOR:
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this play?

STUDENT:
Well that politicians and T.V. reporters don't tell the truth because Mrs. Peterson said we could make the politicians hold it while making a speech and the minister said that would be terrible.
They had a whole bunch of presidents and they were negotiating about what to do with the rock - and I don't remember what they decided because I read the last part a little quickly.

INVESTIGATOR:
You don't remember what they decided to do with the rock?

STUDENT:
I think the Petersons decided to keep it.

INVESTIGATOR:
Did you think any parts of this selection were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Well that Report Flash, he's all fancy suit and his hands are all clean and shirt all neat and he's eating at the Greasy Spoon diner.

INVESTIGATOR:
Why is that funny?

STUDENT:
Well the Greasy Spoon diner you kinda think of a man as a cook with tatoos on his arm, with a tank top and an apron and flipping the hamburgers in the air.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 208. Noreen is speaking. Can you change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
That doesn't have anything to do with the press conference at all.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
I have a question I'd like to ask you, "How did you feel when the space ship landed on your back yard?",

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the part of the play on page 210. The minister is speaking. Can you change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
That would make things worse Mrs. Maple, I have my false teeth in and coffee stains them.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this play, what told you that the story was not about realistic, everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
You usually don't find truth rocks.

SELECTION 3

INVESTIGATOR :
What do you think were the main things the author intended you to understand from this song?

STUDENT:
Well it sorta sounded like Snoopy was sleeping and Charlie Brown was waking him up and telling him its suppertime and Snoopy wasn't really noticing it. But then all of a sudden he must have heard suppertime and he went ape.

INVESTIGATOR :
Did you think any parts of this song were funny or strange in any way? Why?

STUDENT:
Super dooper, upped dupper.

INVESTIGATOR:
Find the first time that Snoopy talks. Change this part so that it is no longer funny or strange.

STUDENT:
Ya sounds like someone in the time of King Arthur sort of talks like my cup runneth over.

INVESTIGATOR:
Can you change it?

STUDENT:
Behold the large bowl full of meat and drink which is brought for me so I won't be hungry any longer.

INVESTIGATOR:
In this song, what told you that the story was not about realistic everyday happenings?

STUDENT:
Well, because I saw this show before and I knew what it was.